



213

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EDITED BY
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THE ACADEMY OF NATURAL SCIENCES OF PHILADELPHIA; MEMBER OF THE AMERICAN
PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY; ASSOCIATE FELLOW OF THE AMERICAN
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&c. &c. &c.

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TO READERS AND CORRESPONDENTS.

COMMUNICATIONS have been received from Professors Hodge, Middleton Michel, Richard McSherry, Drs. W. O. Baldwin, John Hart, J. R. Black, M. A. Fox, F. M. Lyle, J. S. King, C. I. Faust, J. P. Mettauer, I. F. Rogers, B. I. Day, and P. Harvey, which shall receive early attention.

Dr. David Prince's paper "On Correction of Inversion of the Ciliary Margin of the Eyelids," is in type and the proof-sheets were sent to the author, but not having been returned in time the article has been postponed until our next issue.

All articles intended for the *Original Department* of this Journal must be communicated to it for publication *exclusively*.

Contributors who design to favour us with original articles for the next No. should forward them before the 1st of August.

Compensation is allowed for original articles and reviews, *except* when illustrations or extra copies are desired. A *limited* number of extra copies will be furnished, if the request for them be made when the communication is sent. The extensive circulation of this journal renders extra copies comparatively of little value to authors, who desire their observations made known to their professional brethren.

The following works have been received:—

Transactions of the Obstetrical Society of London, Vol. VII., for the year 1865. With a list of Officers, Fellows, etc. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1866. (From the Society.)

On Diseases of the Veins, Hæmorrhoidal Tumours, and other Affections of the Rectum. Entirely re-written. By HENRY LEE, F. R. C. S., Surgeon to St. George's Hospital, Hon. Fellow King's College, London, &c. &c. &c. Second edition. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1866. (From the Publishers.)

On Winter Cough, Catarrh, Bronchitis, Emphysema, and Asthma; with an Appendix on some Principles of Diet in Disease. A Course of Lectures delivered at the Royal Infirmary for Diseases of the Chest. By HORACE DOBELL, M. D., Physician to the Infirmary, etc. etc. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1866. (From the Publishers.)

On the Nature, Cause, and Treatment of Tuberculosis. By HORACE DOBELL, M. D., M. R. C. P. Lond., Physician to the Royal Infirmary for Diseases of the Chest, etc. etc. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1866. (From the Publishers.)

Cholera in its Home. With a sketch of the Pathology and Treatment of the Disease. By JOHN MACPHERSON, M. D., late Deputy-Inspector General of Hospitals H. M. Bengal Army, etc. etc. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1866.

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A Handy-Book of Ophthalmic Surgery for the Use of Practitioners. By JOHN Z. LAURENCE, F. R. C. S., M. D. (Univ. Lond.), Surgeon to the Ophthalmic Hospital, Southwark, Editor of the Ophthalmic Review, etc. etc. etc., and ROBT. C. MOON, House-Surgeon to the Ophthalmic Hospital, Southwark. With numerous illustrations. London: Robert Hardwicke. 1866.

On the Use of the Sphygmograph in the Investigation of Disease. By BALTAZAR W. FOSTER, M. D., M. R. C. P. Lond., Licentiate of King and Queen's College of Physicians, etc. etc. etc. London, 1866.

A Lecture on Posterior Staphyloma, with special reference to two singular Cases; with a Supplementary Note on Posterior Staphyloma (so called) and Hypermetropia, and illustrations. By J. F. STREATFEILD, F. R. C. S., Assistant

Surgeon to the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital, Moorfields, etc. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1866. (From the Author.)

On Ovarian Dropsy, with cases of Ovariectomy. By THOMAS KEITH, M. D., F. R. C. S. E., Surgeon to the Edinburgh Ear Dispensary, etc. Edinburgh, 1863. (From the Author.)

Fourteen Cases of Ovariectomy. By THOMAS KEITH, M. D., etc. etc. Edinburgh, 1864. (From the Author.)

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On Delirium or Acute Insanity during the decline of Acute Diseases, especially the Delirium of Collapse. By HERMANN WEBER, M. D., F. R. C. P., Physician to the German Hospital. London, 1865. (From the Author.)

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Zur Diagnose der Hæmatocele retro-uterine Inaugural-Abhandlung der Medicinischen Facultät zu Jena zur Erlangung der Doctorwürde der Medicin und Chirurgie vorgelegt und nebst beigefügten. Von PAUL KAMPFFE, aus Saalburg, Assistent an der geburtshülftlichen Klinik zu Jena. Jena, 1865.

Eine Extrauterinschwangerschaft. Von B. S. SCHULTZE.

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Exstirpation eines ungewöhuluh breit aufsitzenden Gebärmutterfibroids. Von B. S. SCHULTZE.

Ueber Superfœcundation und Superfœtation. Von B. S. SCHULTZE.

Probeblatt aus Wandtafeln zur Schwangerschafts und Geburtskunde. Zwanzig Tafeln in grösstem handkarten-Imperial-Tonnat. Gezeichnet und mit erläuterndem Texte herausgegeben von Dr. B. S. SCHULTZE, Professor, &c.

Das Erscheinen erfolgt in 5 Lieferungen von je 4 Tafeln nebst Text. Leipzig: Verlag von Voigt & Günther.

Dr. H. SNELLEN's Test-Types for the Determination of the Acuteness of Vision. New edition. Utrecht, 1866. (From the Author.)

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Normal Presence of Alcohol in the Blood. By WM. HUSTON FORD, M. D., Lecturer on Physiology in Charleston Medical School, &c. &c. &c. Read before the Elliott Society of Natural History of Charleston, South Carolina, May 15, 1858. Charleston, S. C., 1859. (From the Author.)

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Reflex Paralysis: its Pathological Anatomy and Relation to the Sympathetic Nervous System. By M. GONZALES ECHIVERRIA, M. D. (Univ. of Paris), Physician to the Charity Hospital, New York, etc. etc. New York: Baillière Brothers, 1866. (From the Author.)

Shakspeare's Delineations of Insanity, Imbecility, and Suicide. By A. O. KELLOGG, M. D., Assistant Physician State Lunatic Asylum, Utica, N. Y. New York: Hurd & Houghton, 1866.

Tracts for the People. By EDWIN M. SNOW, M. D., Superintendent of Health, Providence, R. I. Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4.

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Biographical Sketches of Distinguished New York Surgeons. By SAMUEL W. FRANCIS, A. M., M. D., &c. New York: 1866.

Intramural Interments in Populous Cities and their Influence upon Health and Epidemics. By JOHN H. RAUCH, M. D. Chicago, 1866.

Descriptive Catalogue of Fluid and Solid Extracts in Vacuo, also Concentrations and Official Pills, prepared by Henry Thayer & Company, with formulas and receipts. Cambridgeport, Mass., 1866.

The following Journals have been received in exchange:—

Revue de Thérapeutique Médico-Chirurgicale. Par A. MARTIN-LAUZER, M. D., &c. Nos. 24, 1865, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 1866.

The British and Foreign Medico-Chirurgical Review. April, 1866.

The Medical Times and Gazette. March, April, May, 1866.

British Medical Journal. Nos. 263, 264, 265, 266, 267, 268, 269, 270, 271, 272, 273, 275, 276, 277, 278, 279, 280, 1866.

Edinburgh Medical Journal. February, March, April, May, 1866.

The Ophthalmic Review. Edited by J. ZACHARIAH LAURENCE, of London, and THOMAS WINDSOR, of Manchester. April, 1866.

The Medical Mirror. January, February, March, April, 1866.

The Dublin Quarterly Journal of Medical Science. February, May, 1866.

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Canada Medical Journal. Edited by G. E. FENWICK, M. D., and F. W. CAMPBELL, M. D., L. R. C. P. L. March, April, May, 1866.

The Boston Medical and Surgical Journal. Edited by SAMUEL L. ABBOT, M. D., and JAS. C. WHITE, M. D. April, May, June, 1866.

The American Journal of Insanity. Edited by the Medical Officers of the New York State Lunatic Asylum. January, April, 1866.

The New York Medical Journal. April, May, 1866.

The Cincinnati Lancet and Observer. Edited by EDWARD B. STEVENS, M. D., and JOHN A. MURPHY, M. D. April, May, June, 1866.

The St. Louis Medical and Surgical Journal. Edited by M. L. LINTON, M. D., and FRANK W. WHITE, M. D. March, April, May, June, 1866.

Buffalo Medical and Surgical Journal. Edited by JULIUS F. MINER, M. D. March, April, May, June, 1866.

The Medical Record. April, May, June, 1866.

The Chicago Medical Journal. March, April, May, June, 1866.

The Chicago Medical Examiner. Edited by N. S. DAVIS, M. D. June, 1866. [The Nos. for April and May have not been received.]

The Medical and Surgical Reporter. Edited by S. W. BUTLER, M. D. April, May, June, 1866.

The Cincinnati Journal of Medicine. Edited by GEO. C. BLACKMAN, M. D., THEOPHILUS PARVIN, M. D., and ROBERTS BARTHOLOW, M. D. March, April, May, June, 1866.

The Richmond Medical Journal. Edited by E. S. GAILLARD, M. D., and W. S. McCHESNEY, M. D. April, May, June, 1866.

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The Medical Reporter. Edited by J. S. B. ALLEYNE, M. D., and O. F. POTTER, M. D. March, April, May, June, 1866.

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Atlanta Medical and Surgical Journal. Edited by J. G. WESTMORLAND, M. D., and W. F. WESTMORLAND, M. D. March, April, May, June, 1866.

The Medical and Surgical Monthly, Memphis, Tennessee. Edited by FRANK A. RAMSEY, M. D., D. D. SAUNDERS, M. D., E. MILES WILLETT, M. D., and WM. H. WHITE, M. D. March, April, May, 1866.

Southern Journal of Medical Sciences. Edited by E. D. TURNER, M. D., D. WARREN BRICKELL, M. D., and C. BEARD, M. D. May, 1866.

The Pacific Medical and Surgical Journal and Press. Edited by HENRY GIBBONS, M. D. April, 1866.

The Galveston Medical Journal. Edited by GREENSVILLE DOWELL, M. D. March, 1866.

The New Orleans Medical Record: a Semi-Monthly Journal of the Medical Sciences. Editors: BENNET DOWLER, M. D., and S. R. CHAMBERS, M. D. May, June, 1866.

The American Journal of Pharmacy. Published by Authority of the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy. Edited by WILLIAM PROCTER, Jr. May, 1866.

The Druggists' Circular and Chemical Gazette. April, May, June, 1866.

The Journal of Materia Medica. Conducted by JOSEPH BATES, M. D., and H. A. TILDEN. March, April, May, June, 1866.

The Dental Cosmos. Edited by J. H. McQUILLEN, D. D. S., and GEORGE J. ZIEGLER, M. D. April, May, 1866.

CONTENTS

OF THE

AMERICAN JOURNAL

OF THE

MEDICAL SCIENCES.

NO. CIII. NEW SERIES.

JULY 1866.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

MEMOIRS AND CASES.

ART.	PAGE
I. On Amputation at the Hip-Joint, with the Histories of the Cases in which the Operation has been performed at Philadelphia. By Thomas G. Morton, M. D., one of the attending Surgeons of the Pennsylvania Hospital and to the Wills (Ophthalmic) Hospital, Philada. (With eight woodcuts.)	17
II. On the Predisposing Causes of Epidemic Diseases. By A. P. Merrill, M. D., of New York.	39
III. Account of Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis, as it occurred in parts of Du-bois, Spencer, and Perry Counties, Southern Indiana. By M. Kempf, M. D., of Fairmont, Ind.	55
IV. Contributions to Aural Surgery. On Catarrhal Inflammation of the Cavity of the Tympanum occurring in Young Persons. By D. B. St. John Roosa, M. D., Clinical Lecturer on Aural Surgery and Ophthalmology in the University of the City of New York, late Aural Surgeon to the N. Y. Eye and Ear Infirmary	62
V. Observations in Clinical Surgery. By John Ashhurst, Jr., M. D., one of the Surgeons to the Episcopal Hospital.	66
VI. Twelve Cases of Gunshot Injuries of the Head. By W. P. Moon, M. D., formerly Executive Officer of Mower U. S. A. Hospital, Philadelphia, Pa.	83
VII. Physiological Experiments connected with the Silent, Talking, and Passive Movement Pulse, and the Silent Respiration—made by J. H. Salisbury, M. D., and Dr. M. W. House, on Members of the Biological Society, whose names appear in the Tables; with Explanations and Remarks. By J. H. Salisbury, M. D., Professor of Histol., Physiol., and Pathol. in Charity Hospital Med. Col., Cleveland, Ohio.	92
VIII. Experiments Connected with the Effects of the Sulphate of Quinia and Cinchonia upon the Healthy Pulse. By D. B. Elson, M. D.	97
IX. Ophthalmia Epidemica on board the U. S. Ship Jamestown, at Yokohama, Japan, in 1863. By Thomas C. Walton, M. D., Passed Assistant Surgeon U. S. Navy.	98
X. Ligation of the Axillary Artery in the First Portion of its Course. By John H. Brinton, M. D., of Philadelphia.	101
XI. Successful Resection of both Bones of the Forearm, for Ununited Fracture of long standing. By Samuel J. Jones, A. M., M. D., Surgeon U. S. Navy.	105
XII. Efficacy of Persulphate of Iron as an Hæmostatic. By W. A. Wetherby, M. D., of New York.	106
XIII. Arterial Hemorrhage treated by Compression. By Eli D. Sargent, M. D., U. S. Navy.	107

ART.	PAGE
XIV. Case of Dislocation of Fifth Cervical Vertebra. By C. C. Gray, Asst. Surgeon U. S. A.	109
XV. Successful Removal of both Ovaries. By A. Reeves Jackson, M. D., Stroudsburg, Pa.	111
XVI. Tubercular Tumour of Brain. By M. L. Mead, M. D., of Albany, N. Y.	115
XVII. A New Remedy for Gonorrhœa. By J. S. Prettyman, M. D., of Milford, Del.	117
XVIII. Gunshot Wound of the Bladder; Recovery. By Israel B. Washburn, M. D., late Surgeon 46th Ind. Vol. Inf., now of Star City, Indiana.	118

TRANSACTIONS OF SOCIETIES.

XIX. Summary of the Proceedings of the Pathological Society of Philadelphia.	119
Vesical Calculus. By Dr. William Pepper	119
Tumours of the Larynx. By Dr. Harlan.	122
Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis. By Dr. Hutchinson.	125
Hepatic Abscess. By Dr. Geo. Pepper.	127
Case of Obscure Nervous Disease. By Dr. John Ashhurst, Jr.	130
Cystic Abscess of both Kidneys accompanied by Renal Calculi. By Dr. Tyson.	133
Tumour of Brain. By Dr. Hutchinson.	134

REVIEWS.

XX. A Treatise on the Principles and Practice of Medicine; designed for the Use of Practitioners and Students of Medicine. By Austin Flint, M. D., Professor of the Principles and Practice of Medicine in the Bellevue Hospital Medical College, &c. 8vo. pp. 867. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea, 1866.	137
XXI. The Transactions of the American Medical Association. Instituted 1847. Vol. XVI. 8vo. pp. 869.	163
XXII. The Physiology of Man; designed to represent the Existing State of Physiological Science, as applied to the Functions of the Human Body. By Austin Flint, Jr., M. D., Professor of Physiology and Microscopy in the Bellevue Hospital Medical College, New York, and in the Long Island College Hospital; Fellow of the New York Academy of Medicine, Microscopist to Bellevue Hospital. Introduction; the Blood; Circulation; Respiration. 8vo. pp. 502. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1866.	171
XXIII. A Practical Treatise on Urinary and Renal Diseases, Including Urinary Deposits; Illustrated by Numerous Cases and Engravings. By William Roberts, M. D., Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, London; Physician to the Manchester Royal Infirmary; Lecturer on Medicine in the Manchester School of Medicine. 8vo. pp. 516. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea, 1866.	181

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ART.	PAGE
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XXV. Reports on the Extent and Nature of the Materials available for the preparation of a Medical and Surgical History of the Rebellion. Circular No. 6. War Department, Surgeon General's Office, Washington, November 1, 1865. 4to. pp. 166. Printed for the Surgeon General's Office, by J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia, 1865. .	191
XXVI. Reports of American Hospitals for the Insane.	
1. Of the Frankford Asylum, for the fiscal year 1865-66.	
2. Of the Northern Ohio Asylum, for the fiscal year 1864-65.	
3. Of the Bloomingdale Asylum, for the year 1865.	
4. Of the Eastern Asylum of Kentucky, for the fiscal years 1864-65.	
5. Of the Western Asylum of Virginia, for the fiscal years 1863-64 and 1864-65.	
6. Of the Wisconsin Hospital, for the fiscal year 1864-65.	
7. Of the McLean Asylum, for the year 1865.	
8. Of the Tennessee Hospital, for 10½ months, 1865-66.	
9. Of the Western Asylum of Kentucky, for the fiscal year 1864-65.	
10. Of the King's County, N. Y., Asylum, for the fiscal year 1864-65. .	192
XXVII. Proceedings of the American Pharmaceutical Association at the Thirteenth Annual Meeting, held in Boston, Mass., September, 1865; also the Constitution and Roll of Members. 8vo. pp. 260. Philadelphia: Merrihew & Son. Printers, 1865. .	199
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XXIX. Transactions of the Obstetrical Society of London. Vol. VII., for the year 1865. 8vo. pp. 336. London, 1866. .	204
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XXXI. Lehrbuch der Hebammenkunst. Von Dr. Bernhard Schultze, Professor der Geburtshülfe, Director der Entbindungsanstalt und der Hebammenschule zu Jena. Mit 62 Holzschnitten. Zweite Auflage. 8vo. pp. 298. Leipzig, 1864.	
Compendium of Midwifery. By Dr. B. Schultze, Professor of Obstetrics, Director of the Lying-in Institution and of the School for Midwives at Jena. With sixty-two woodcut illustrations. Second edition. .	218
XXXII. Disease; a part of the Plan of Creation. The Annual Discourse before the Massachusetts Medical Society, May 31, 1865. By Benjamin E. Cotting, M. D. 8vo. pp. 45. Boston: David Clapp & Son. 1866. .	219
XXXIII. Researches on the Medical Properties and Applications of Nitrous Oxide, Protoxide of Nitrogen, or Laughing Gas. By Geo. J. Ziegler, M. D., Physician to the Philadelphia Hospital; Member of the Medical Association, Member of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, etc. etc. 12mo. pp. 66. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1865. .	221

ART.	PAGE
XXXIV. A Manual of the Principles of Surgery, Based on Pathology, for Students. By William Canniff, Licentiate of the Med. Board, Upper Canada; M. D. of Univ. New York; M. R. C. S., England; formerly House Surgeon to the Seaman's Hospital, New York; late Professor of General Pathology and the Principles and Practice of Surgery, Univ. Victoria College, Toronto, C. W., etc. etc. etc. 8vo. pp. 402. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blakiston, 1866.	222
XXXV. The Malformations, Diseases, and Injuries of the Fingers and Toes, and their Surgical Treatment. By Thomas Annandale, F.R.C.S., Edinburgh Lecturer on Surgery, Assistant Surgeon to the Edinburgh Royal Infirmary. The Jacksonian Prize Essay for the year 1864. 8vo. pp. 292. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, & Co., 1866.	222
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XXXVII. Dr. H. Snellen. Test-Types, for the Determination of the Acuteness of Vision. New edition. 8vo. Printed by P. W. Van de Weijer, Utrecht, 1866.	224
XXXVIII. The Restorative Treatment of Pneumonia. By John Hughes Bennett, M. D., F. R. S. E., Professor of the Institutes of Medicine and Senior Professor of Clinical Medicine in the University of Edinburgh, &c. &c. &c. Third edition. 8vo. pp. 110. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black, 1866.	224

QUARTERLY SUMMARY

OF THE

IMPROVEMENTS AND DISCOVERIES IN THE MEDICAL SCIENCES.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY.

	PAGE		PAGE
1. Mechanism of Deglutition. By Dr. Krishaben.	225	3. Relation existing between the Sense of Temperature, the Sense of Touch, and the Sense of Pain. By Dr. A. F. Spring.	226
2. Transmission of Impressions through the Spinal Cord. By Dr. Brown-Séquard.	225		

MATERIA MEDICA AND PHARMACY.

4. Local Anæsthesia in a Case of Cæsarean Section, Ovariectomy, &c. By Dr. B. W. Richardson.	227	8. Hæmostatic Ethers. By Dr. B. W. Richardson.	230
5. Local Anæsthesia. By Dr. L. W. Sedgwick.	227	9. Iodized Cotton. By Dr. Robert Greenhalgh.	231
6. Antagonism of Chloroform and Ether. By Dr. Greenhalgh.	229	10. Chlorate of Quinia. By Dr. Lyons.	232
7. Anæsthetic Properties of the Bichloride of Carbon. By Dr. Sansom.	230	11. Action of Medicinal Preparations of Iron on the Teeth. By Dr. John Smith.	232

MEDICAL PATHOLOGY AND THERAPEUTICS, AND PRACTICAL MEDICINE.

	PAGE		PAGE
12. Acute Uncomplicated Myocarditis in which the Disease was Diagnosed during Life. By Dr. C. B. Radcliffe.	233	17. The Sense of Smell Applied-to Diagnosis. By Dr. Henry Johnson.	237
13. Fatty Liver in Children. By Drs. Steiner and Neureutter.	235	18. Death after Vaccination. By Dr. Skinner.	239
14. Inoculability of Tuberculosis. By M. Villemin.	235	19. A New Remedial Agent in the Treatment of Insanity and other Diseases. By Dr. S. Newington.	239
15. Sympathy between the Ear and Larynx. By Dr. C. Fox.	236	20. Treatment of Delirium Tremens by Capsicum. By Dr. Lyons.	241
16. Cruveilhier's Paralysis. By Dr. Fleming.	237	21. Subcutaneous Injections. By Dr. H. Frommuller, Sr.	241

SURGICAL PATHOLOGY AND THERAPEUTICS, AND OPERATIVE SURGERY.

22. Lipoma of the Spermatie Cord; Diagnosis from Diffused Hydrocele. By Dr. G. Marzattini.	242	location of the Right Elbow-Joint. By Mr. F. J. Gant.	245
23. Large Hygroma of the Foot. By Dr. J. F. Heyfelder.	242	28. Amputation at the Knee. By Prof. Syme.	248
24. Multiple Neuromata Affecting the Nerves both within and external to the Spinal Canal, some of the Tumours being of a Cystic Nature. By Mr. S. W. Sibley.	243	29. Ligation of the Femoral Artery for Aneurism. By Prof. Syme.	250
25. On Putrid Infection complicating certain Simple Fractures of the Jaw. By M. Richet.	243	30. Lumbar Colotomy (Amussat's Operation) Successfully Performed for the Relief of a Vesico-Intestinal Fistula. By Mr. T. Holmes.	251
26. Impacted fracture of the Neck of the Femur; Recovery with firm Union, and a freely movable Joint; Limb slightly shortened. By Mr. Gant.	244	31. Paracentesis Thoracis in an Infant. By Dr. Guinier.	252
27. External Latero-Angular Dis-		32. Application of Chloride of Zinc in Solution to Surgical and Accidental Wounds.	252
		33. Citric Acid for the Relief of the Pain in Cancer. By Mr. C. J. Denny.	253

OPHTHALMOLOGY.

34. The Modern Methods of Dealing with Cataract. By Mr. M. A. Adams.	253	Affections of the Conjunctiva and Cornea. By Dr. A. Samelson.	261
35. Black Cataract. By Mr. Walton.	256	39. Treatment of Pannus. By Dr. Samelson.	262
36. Iridectomy in Glaucoma. By Mr. T. Wharton Jones.	257	40. Dermoid Tumours. By Dr. Samelson.	262
37. Von Graefe's Eye Clinic. By Dr. A. Samelson.	259	41. Syphilitic Affections of the Eye. By MM. Quaglino and Scarenzio.	262
38. Von Graefe's Treatment of			

MIDWIFERY.

42. Causes of the Position of the Fœtus. By Prof. von Scanzoni.	263	45. Enlargements of the Uterus which follow Abortions, Premature or Natural Confinement. By Dr. Snow Beck.	266
43. Tetanus of the Uterus. By Dr. David Gordon.	265	46. Epithelial Tumours of the Cervix Uteri. By M. Cornil.	266
44. Hemorrhage from the Uterus. By Dr. Barnes.	265		

HYGIENE.

	PAGE		PAGE
47. Means for the Ready and		Simple Purification of Water.	
		By Mr. Thomas Spencer. . .	268

MEDICAL JURISPRUDENCE AND TOXICOLOGY.

48. Poisoning by Petroleum. By Dr. Mayer.	269	50. Poisoning by Atropia. By Dr. v. Schmid.	269
49. Poisoning by Water-hemlock. By Dr. Lender.	269		

AMERICAN INTELLIGENCE.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

On the Internal Use of Chloroform in Intermittent Fever. By E. McClellan, M. D.	271	Chronic Diarrhœa of Nine Years' Duration cured by Strychnia. By Charles C. Shoyer, M. D.	277
Case of Erysipelatous Laryngitis; Laryngotomy; Recovery. By Wm. J. Wilson, M. D.	275	Intra-Orbital Aneurism treated by Compression. By Clarkson Freeman, M. D.	277
Sycosis Menti cured by the Sulphite of Soda. By Charles M. Matson, M. D.	276	Poisoning by Stramonium. By H. Y. Evans, M. D.	278

DOMESTIC SUMMARY.

Cerebro-spinal Meningitis as observed at Mobile, Ala. By Dr. W. G. Armstrong.	279	dendron. By Mr. John P. Maisch.	285
Successful Operation for Subclavian Aneurism. By Dr. A. W. Smyth.	280	Sanitary Condition of the City of New Orleans during Federal Military Occupation. By Dr. E. D. Fenner.	285
Ligature of Primitive Iliac Artery. By Dr. R. N. Isham.	282	Removal of a Pistol Ball; use of Acupuncture Needle. By Dr. Gurdon Buck.	287
Gunshot Wound, with Removal of Rim of Acetabulum, and Dislocation of Femur; Recovery. By Dr. J. F. Miner.	282	Hyposulphite of Soda in Scarlet Fever. By Dr. N. L. North.	287
New Liquid for Producing Local Anesthesia. By Prof. Henry J. Bigelow.	283	Rupture of the Uterus; Gastroto-my; Recovery. By Dr. E. Miles Willett.	287
Active Principle of Rhus Toxicodendron. By Mr. John P. Maisch.			
		NECROLOGY.	
		Alexander Ingram.	287

CORRIGENDA.—In the title to Dr. Leavitt's article, in our last number, the term *hyposulphite* is incorrectly printed *hypersulphite*. It is correctly printed in the body of the paper and in the index.

The reporter of the case of gunshot wound of the brain on page 564 of the same number, is Dr. Joseph C. Hutchison, Prof. Surg. Long Island College Hospital.

THE
AMERICAN JOURNAL
OF THE MEDICAL SCIENCES
FOR JULY 1866.

ART I.—*On Amputation at the Hip-Joint, with the Histories of the Cases in which the Operation has been performed at Philadelphia.* By THOMAS G. MORTON, M. D., one of the attending Surgeons of the Pennsylvania Hospital and to the Wills (Ophthalmic) Hospital, Philada. (With eight woodcuts.)

It is an interesting fact in the history of amputation at the hip-joint, that no less than eleven cases have occurred in Philadelphia, in which amputation at the coxo-femoral articulation has been performed; of this number, the histories of only two or perhaps three of them have been placed upon record. All operations of such magnitude, especially those of amputation at the hip-joint, should be brought before the profession, in order that from the statistics thus adduced we may be able, if possible, in future cases to arrive at the proper course of procedure.

The subject of the first of the following histories came under my care at the Pennsylvania Hospital, during the past winter. Both the patient and myself feel under obligations to Dr. Andrews, the resident surgeon, for the assiduous care and skill manifested in his attendance on the case, to which, in a great measure, is due its successful termination.

CASE IX. *Secondary re-amputation at the hip-Joint for osteo-myelitis.*—E. D. Ulmer, aged 21 years, formerly a sergeant in Company G, 37th New Jersey Volunteers, was wounded by a minie ball at the battle of Cedar Creek, Shenandoah Valley, Va., Oct. 19, 1864. The bullet entered the inner face of the left thigh, about three inches above the condyles, passing across, fractured the bone, and was found lying immediately under the skin on the outer part of the limb, whence it was readily extracted at the time. There was but little hemorrhage at the time of the injury; and an attempt was made to save the limb, as the artery was believed to be

uninjured. The usual symptoms, however, attendant upon such cases soon appeared—sloughing, deep dissecting abscesses, and the discharge of small fragments of bone. The case, nevertheless, progressed favourably until the 24th of November, thirty-six days after the receipt of the injury, when he had a violent hemorrhage. Amputation of the thigh the same day, about the middle, by the flap method, was performed by Dr. Walters, U. S. Vols.

The patient rapidly convalesced, being in the course of a few weeks able to go about on crutches. The stump, however, still continued suppurating and somewhat painful; no change occurred until the month of March, 1865, when a large piece of dead bone was felt. At this time, he was in the Hicks General Hospital, Maryland, under the care of Dr. B. B. Miles, by whom the integuments were dissected back, and the necrosed bone exposed, and three inches of it removed through what was supposed to be sound tissue. From this operation he quickly recovered, and then left for his home at Philadelphia on the 30th of May, the stump still discharging. On the journey he unfortunately fell, and struck the outer part of the stump with much force. Increased suppuration followed with occasional traces of blood in the discharge; also a great deal of deep-seated pain throughout the entire stump.

On the 22d of January, 1866, fifteen months after the original injury, while dressing the part as usual, a hemorrhage occurred from one of the fistulous openings at the end of the stump, amounting, according to his statement, to at least a pint. On account of this hemorrhage, he was admitted into the Pennsylvania Hospital.

The usual local remedies were applied to guard against its return; he was put upon a stimulating treatment, with the best diet. The stump presented the following appearances: The edges of the flaps were ulcerated, inverted, and covered with fungous granulations which were red, painful, and disposed to bleed on the slightest probing. No examination of the bone was made for fear of exciting hemorrhage. On the outside of the stump, which was swollen, sinuses were found, the mouths of each being surrounded by puffy, pale granulating tissue. The femur seemed much thickened, could be readily felt through the integument, and was very painful to pressure, but no examination of the bone was made through the fistulous tracks. The head of the femur seemed also involved, on account of the pain about the region of the socket, and his inability to allow much motion in the joint. He was greatly prostrated from the long-continued drain, and lastly from the hemorrhage.

The history of the case, and the present appearances of the stump, clearly indicated the existence of osteo-myelitis, with necrosis of the neck, and probably ulceration of the head of the bone. The recurrence of dangerous hemorrhage and the very extensive disease of the femur, obviously demanding operative treatment; the removal of the stump at the coxo-femoral articulation offered the only chance for recovery. The patient's general health improved, and there was no further hemorrhage until about the 15th of February, when the discharge again became mixed with blood.

On the 17th, in the Hospital amphitheatre, before the clinical class, the patient being etherized, an exploratory operation was made. An incision upon the outer side of the thigh revealed a diseased condition of the bone as high as the neck. Amputation was decided upon in consultation with Drs. Hunt and Agnew.

The abdominal tourniquet having been applied, antero-posterior integumentary flaps were dissected up; the femoral artery, which was exposed with some difficulty on account of the hardened and altered condition of the tissues, consequent upon the previous inflammation of the soft parts, was then tied.

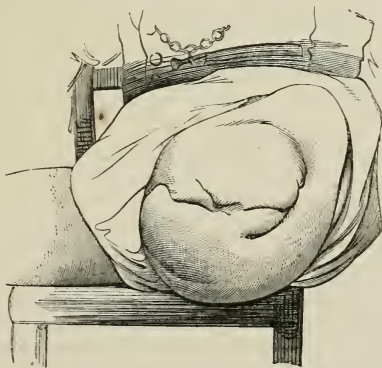
The muscles having then been cut, circularly close to the pelvis, the head of the bone was readily disarticulated. The aorta was so completely controlled by the tourniquet of Mr. Syme that no arterial jet was observed during the operation; the loss of blood being very trifling, hardly amounting to three ounces. About sixteen ligatures were applied. The flaps were approximated with adhesive plaster, no sutures being deemed necessary. The subsequent dressings consisted of lint soaked in pure laudanum, until after the parts had almost healed, when simple cerate dressing was substituted.

The patient was much prostrated by the operation, but reacted well; the discharge was profuse; and during the first week, the edges of the flaps appeared a little sloughy. Under vigorous stimulating treatment and the local application of permanganate of potash in solution, he rapidly recovered.

No other unfavourable symptoms having occurred, and the ligatures being all away by the end of the second week, two small openings in the stump alone remaining, he left the hospital March 27th, thirty-eight days after the operation for his home in the northern section of the city.

May 10. Is going about town on crutches, having gained many pounds since his discharge from the hospital. Fig. 1, engraved from a photograph

Fig. 1.



taken May 1st, seventy-two days after the operation, gives an accurate idea of the appearance of the stump.

20th. Left the city to fill a situation as telegraph operator in New Jersey.

Dissection of the Stump.—The portion of bone removed measured

eight inches in length. It presented a well-marked example of necrosis following osteo-myelitis. A long loose sequestrum was found, extending up into the neck of the femur, encased in new bone, Fig. 2, and projecting through the ulcerated capsular ligament. The exterior consisted of new bone of a porous nature. The head of the femur was ulcerated around the part which unites with the neck; the latter was found much altered in shape from absorption and ulceration.

Fig. 2.



The acetabulum was healthy; no ulceration of the cartilage having taken place.

It is a well-established rule that, to arrest the continued development of osteo-myelitic disease, it is necessary to amputate through a joint, since the affection invariably returns in the adjacent part when the bone has been divided in its continuity. Hence, when the shaft of the femur is involved, we must go to the hip-joint in order to get rid of the disease. In the case presented, the chances of a successful issue were greatly enhanced by the fact that the patient had become habituated to his invalid condition; the continued drain upon his system having extended through a period of sixteen months, gradually prepared his system to sustain the shock of the last operation.

In the following histories of amputations at the hip-joint, we find that all, with one exception, were for long-standing disease, or after the traumatic phenomena had entirely disappeared. Among the various cases, we find one of necrosis following coxalgia; one of extensive burn involving all the tissues from the foot to the groin, the patient being threatened with exhaustion from copious suppuration extending through a period of fifteen months; four cases of enormous tumours of long duration; four cases of disease resulting from gunshot injuries of long standing. The favourable result in a majority of these cases proves that the operation, when performed for chronic disease, or as a secondary operation, affords the most reasonable hope for a favourable result.

Amputation at the hip-joint was performed many times during the late war for gunshot wounds. Of these operations, the mortality, as might be expected, was very great. Of twenty-three cases, thus far reported in the surgical history of our recent war,¹ only two recoveries followed nine primary, and three after fourteen secondary hip-joint amputations.

The arrest of the circulation through the extremities, by pressure applied to the abdominal aorta, may be considered a positive requirement in every case, as it guards against all possibility of danger from loss of blood at the time of operation. Erichsen remarks that "in amputation

¹ Circular No. 6, Surgeon-General's Office, Nov. 1865, p. 50.

at the hip-joint, the great danger to be apprehended is excessive hemorrhage, the incisions being made so high up that no tourniquet can be applied or pressure of the artery in the groin trusted to."¹

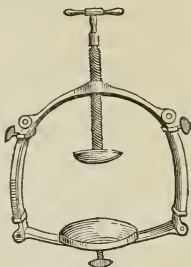
The abdominal compressor, Fig. 3, an instrument of comparatively recent application, effectually controls the aorta, and thus removes this source of greatest danger. That no injurious effects arise from its use may be inferred from the fact that, in nearly every case where it has been employed, the aorta has been compressed for at least ten, and in one case for twenty-seven minutes, without any appreciable effect upon the general circulation. The instrument was used the first time in this country by Prof. Joseph Pancoast, in his first case, June, 1860. It is said to be a modification of the Italian, by Malgaigne, but resembles that of Skey, of London, as given in his *Operative Surgery*. Prior to its being applied the patient should be rolled upon his right side, in order that the intestines may be withdrawn as much as possible out of the way, so as to allow the pad and roller of bandage attached, an important addition to the instrument by Dr. Pancoast, to rest more directly upon the aorta.

The usual method of amputation at the coxo-femoral articulation by the flap operation, after Lisfranc, is much more rapidly accomplished, but the enormous mass of muscular tissue which remains gives a large suppurating surface, and has probably been one of the causes of the great fatality in this operation. Dr. J. M. Warren, of Boston, was one of the first to perform the operation by flap of the integuments, and a circular division of the muscles, which is so highly recommended by Mr. Skey, of London, in the first case of successful amputation at the joint in that city in 1859. The disease was osteo-sarcoma, which extended so high up that the ordinary method of transfixion was impracticable.

"And in view of the possibility of a dissection of the tumour from its attachments, a large flap of skin was raised from its front part, the incision commencing at the root of the scrotum, and terminating just above and in front of the great trochanter.

"The flap was dissected up quite to Poupart's ligament, the fascia over the artery opened, the vessel exposed, a ligature passed around it and tied. An incision was now made on the back part of the thigh corresponding with that in front, and the flap partially raised, with a short strong knife, the muscles running from the pubis to the inside of the

Fig. 3.



¹ *Surgery*, p. 77, 1853.

tumour were cut through, and those on the outside treated in a similar manner."¹

The operation was then completed by disarticulating the head of the bone.

In both cases of Dr. Pancoast, the first in 1860, and the second in 1865, which terminated so successfully, this distinguished surgeon adopted skin flaps, with circular division of the muscles from choice, believing that with less muscular surface to suppurate the risks of the operation would be diminished.

To Professors Pancoast and Gross, and also to Dr. Agnew, I am under many obligations for the full notes of their cases kindly placed at my disposal. Those of Dr. Agnew's case have been carefully and admirably drawn up by Dr. Wm. Pepper, the resident surgeon at the Pennsylvania Hospital, under whose immediate care the patient was. I have also incorporated in this paper Dr. Packard's case, the full history of which is published in Circular No. 6, Surgeon-General's Report, Nov. 1865. This case may be justly considered as belonging to Philadelphia, since the hospital, although outside of the city, at Beverly, was in reality one of the city U. S. A. hospitals, and under the immediate control of the medical director at Philadelphia.

The most recent case of hip-joint amputation in Philadelphia has just occurred at the Episcopal Hospital, on Saturday, May 5, 1866. I regret my inability to obtain any account but the barest outline of the case and operation. From this it appears to have strongly resembled that of Dr. Agnew's, both as to the nature of the wound and its results, as well as the method of operation.

The statistics of the Philadelphia cases, eleven in number, place the operation in a favourable light; for of this number seven have recovered and four died.

CASE I. *Morbus coxarius; caries of the head of the femur; amputation at the hip-joint*; by Dr. J. W. Duffee, in 1840, being the first operation at the joint in Philadelphia. The principal facts I have obtained from a "note of the delivery of a female, one of whose lower limbs had been disarticulated at the hip-joint seventeen years since, for morbus coxarius,"² by John H. Packard, M. D." The patient was a coloured girl about six years of age, who had long suffered from disease of the hip-joint; disarticulation at the joint was effected, although the acetabulum was much diseased; she made a good recovery. Seventeen years afterwards the patient was an inmate of the Blockley Almshouse, obstetrical department; her delivery was successful. The stump was entirely healthy and presented a beautiful cicatrix.

CASE II. *Medullary sarcoma connected with the periosteum, and involving the soft parts at the inner side of the middle and upper region of the*

¹ Boston Med. and Surg. Journ., May 26th, 1859.

² Amer. Journ. of Med. Sci., Philadelphia, No. lxvii., July, 1857, p. 283.

thigh. Amputation at the hip-joint, at the Pennsylvania Hospital, June 13th, 1860, by Joseph Pancoast, M.D., Prof. of Anatomy in Jefferson Medical College; first instance of aortic compression with the tourniquet in this operation; Acupressure. Reported by Dr. T. B. Reed, one of the Resident Surgeons of the Hospital.—Maurice Heston, a farmer from New Jersey, aged 32, stout and muscular, weighing 168 pounds, was admitted into the Pennsylvania Hospital June 6, 1860, with a large tumour, pulpy to the feel, occupying a considerable part of the upper and middle third of the thigh, on the inner side of the limb.

The patient stated that, about eleven months before, he had been struck, while ploughing, a sharp blow on the inner side of the thigh with the handle of his plough. The bruised part was painful for a considerable time, then all unusual sensitiveness seemed to disappear. Some months after, not being able to recollect exactly when, a tumour was felt deeply seated on the inner part of the thigh. It increased rapidly in size, and soon produced a feeling of constant uneasiness and dull pain. For a time the growth seemed to be kept in check by the internal use of iodide of potassium and the external application of the tincture of iodine, which he used by the advice of his family physician. It has now attained a great size, and he is unable to move about except by the aid of crutches, and finds for the last month his appetite and sleep have been impaired.

Two months prior to his admission Dr. Pancoast examined the tumour, and introduced a canulated trocar, so contrived as to withdraw a small portion of it for the purpose of microscopical examination, which made more manifest the bad character of the tumour. He was put under the use of quinia and iron internally, with cold sedative lotions to the limb.

June 13. Present, the surgical staff of the hospital, many physicians and surgeons of the city, the clinical class, and the physicians of the Japanese embassy, which were then visiting us.

The patient, fully apprised of the serious character of the operation, the risk of life attending it, and the chance of a return of the disease, prepared himself with great coolness and fortitude for it.

To avoid the loss of blood which usually follows in hip-joint operations, from the gluteal, ischiatic, and other arteries which cannot be directly compressed, Dr. Pancoast proposed to make compression on the aortic trunk near its termination, a little above and to the left of the umbilicus, with a large tourniquet made to embrace the body, on the Italian principle. As this instrumental compression of the aorta had not, it was believed, been previously used in disarticulation of the hip-joint, and probably for no other cause long kept up while the patient was under the influence of an anæsthetic, it became a question whether so firm a pressure on the abdominal muscles as would be necessary, would interfere with respiration during the anæsthetic sleep. This question was duly decided in favour of the use of the tourniquet by an experimental trial a few days before the operation.

The tumour had extended so far up the bone as to make the hip-joint the only practicable point of operation, if any other indeed had been justifiable, and with the necessity even then of getting part of the skin flap from over the front face of the tumour. From the great size of the hip, Dr. Pancoast believed the chance of the patient's recovery would be almost in inverse proportion to the bulk of muscles left covering the joint and the amount of blood lost. With this object in view the operation was done as follows:—

The abdominal tourniquet having been previously adjusted, the patient was put thoroughly under the influence of sulphuric ether by inhalation. The pad of the tourniquet, with a roller bandage strapped beneath it, was now forced down with a screw upon the aorta a little above and to the left of the umbilicus, which perfectly interrupted the circulation down both limbs. The patient was rolled a little on the opposite hip and the diseased limb well adducted so as to bring the trochanter major forwards and make the joint more accessible. A stout strong scalpel, double edged at the point, was entered above the trochanter and pushed along the neck of the bone into the joint. The knife was then brought down over the trochanter and for three inches below it, cutting to the bone, the limb at the time being slightly adducted by the assistant. It was then carried over the front of the thigh, making an incision slightly convex downwards (cutting down to the muscles merely) to a point on the inner side of the thigh, corresponding to a line drawn transversely round the limb an inch and a quarter below the level of the lower part of the ischium. The knife was then carried, cutting in like manner down to the muscles, along this posterior transverse line, and then along the outer part of the thigh to the point of commencement, cutting again to the bone as the knife came up below the trochanter. A cutaneous flap, nearly two inches broad, comprising within it nearly all the parts down to the face of the muscles, was then dissected up around the front, inner, and back part of the limb, and reverted. On the back part of the limb the reverted flap was fully two inches lower. At the base of this fold the knife was carried down to the bone on the front of the limb. By a little dissection the surface of the joint was now exposed. From the point where the knife entered the joint at the first step of the operation, the capsule was divided on its front and inner face. The limb was then strongly adducted so as to allow of the cutting of the round interarticular ligament near the head of the bone, and thus make more easy the securing of the branches of the obturator artery which accompany it. The head of the bone was now dislocated forwards and a large catlin passed behind it to cut the remains of the capsule and the surrounding mass of muscles as short as possible, coming out at the base of the reverted flap behind.

There were no arterial jets, and but little blood was lost, including that from the severed limb, and a little reflux from the femoral vein which was immediately arrested by an acupressure needle passed after the ingenious method devised by Sir J. Y. Simpson, of Edinburgh. Another acupressure needle was placed likewise upon the femoral artery, the current of which it effectually controlled. Some ten ligatures were applied upon the profunda and some smaller arteries.

The patient bore the operation well, the respiration and the pulse not being in any unusual degree interfered with. The tourniquet was now loosened and the patient allowed to come from under the influence of the ether. The operation and ligation were rapidly done, so that the patient was but a few minutes under the full pressure of the tourniquet.

An hour afterwards the thick skin flaps were brought together by eight leaden sutures, and thoroughly pressed down and supported by very long broad strips of adhesive plaster, passed in various directions, so as to make the firmest closure of the large wound.

Previously, as a measure of additional security, a ligature was placed on the mouth of the femoral, leaving the needle compressing it in place. The stump was then covered by a large piece of patent lint soaked in

pure laudanum, half a grain of morphia was administered, and repeated at 6 and 10 P.M. and 2 A.M.

14th. Had a good night; pulse 96. Ordered milk-punch for breakfast with a soft boiled egg; half a grain of morphia in solution at 10 A.M.; chicken soup for dinner; mineral water to drink. Laudanum continued to the stump.

15th. Had a good night; pulse 100; skin very pleasant. Half grain of morphia given in beef-tea at 10 A.M.; some tympanites; an enema of 3ij of turpentine to a pint and a half of warm soap and water, which moved the bowels freely and relieved the tympanites. P.M. pulse 130; some heat of skin. Neutral mixture ordered every two hours; pulse fell to 120.

16th. Not so good a night; troubled with flatulence. Two drachms castor oil given and hot whiskey fomentations to belly. Half a grain of morphia at 10; appetite not so good; ordered a wineglass of milk-punch at 6 and 8 o'clock. Bowels not yet moved, ordered an enema of turpentine, which brought away a full evacuation, and afforded great relief.

17th. Passed a good night, less tympanites; appetite not good. Ordered wineglass of milk-punch and beef essence every six hours; stomach irritable, and complains of indigestion; lime-water given, mineral water omitted, as it was thought to increase the stomach trouble. Half a grain of morphia at 10 A.M. and 3 P.M. Continued laudanum to the stump.

18th. Had a good night; bowels twice moved; during the night pulse feeble; stimulants and beef essence every four hours; eat but little breakfast. All the dressings were removed; two of the alternate sutures were removed, and much of the wound had united by first intention; some little discharge where the ligatures came out; the strips were reapplied and also the laudanum dressing. 10 P.M. bowels opened twice; ordered a mixture of chalk and tannin; one-quarter grain of morphia at 10 P.M. Eats but little; takes a grain of quinia every four hours with ten drops of tincture of iron, alternate 4 P.M., patient vomited; a mustard plaster put on belly and lime-water given; took no supper; at 7 and 10 P.M. and 3 A.M. half a grain of morphia was given. Pulse at 8 P.M. 120, and feeble. 10 P.M. bowels moved; took a cup of black tea.

19th. 8 A.M. patient better; bowels not distended; pulse 100; skin pleasant; stimulants and beef-tea as before every four hours; stomach still somewhat irritable; a cloth soaked in paregoric and covered with oiled silk placed on belly. One-third of a grain of morphia at 10 A.M. and 3 P.M.; stump dressed as usual with pure laudanum. 7 P.M. doing well; pulse 103; skin soft; appetite better.

20th. 8 A.M., good night; injection of turpentine and warm soap and water given. 12 M. complains of stiffness of the jaw, as if he had taken cold; part was rubbed with a mixture of chloroform and aconite. 7 P.M. doing well; pulse 110, and full; skin comfortable; complains of starts in the stump which run up through his body, when he falls into a doze and has disturbed dreams; ordered Hoffmann's anodyne.

21st. 8 A.M., tolerably comfortable night; appetite improved; the two acupressure needles, one upon the femoral, the other upon the profunda, were removed; some slight hemorrhage on the withdrawal of the femoral pin; one ligature from the outside of the stump removed; dressed as usual. 9 P.M., patient lost about one and a half ounces of blood arterial in appearance; the dressings were removed and the bleed-

ing at once ceased; it was found to proceed from a point about midway in the line of the flap and away from any of the ligatures or sutures; a pledget of lint was introduced into the opening, and a thick compress of the same tightly strapped over the point and the dressings replaced.

22d. No change; two ounces of sanious pus discharged; patient comfortable.

24th. Patient improving; partaking of mutton chops and potatoes; quite a large discharge of sanious pus from the point of hemorrhage, at least six or eight ounces of matter sponged away.

25th. Two ligatures came away; amount of pus diminished; patient's general health improving; an opening injection ordered.

26th. Two ligatures came away to-day; bowels fully moved by yesterday's enema; progressing admirably; only a teaspoonful of morphia solution at bedtime.

27th. Continues improving rapidly.

July 1. No appetite; tongue furred; ordered two blue pills.

2d. Much improved; bowels freely opened during the night.

7th. The ligature from the profunda came off. There has been but little discharge for some days past, and the wound is gradually closing; the pulse has not varied twenty beats either way for the past ten days.

11th. The femoral ligature came away to-day, and the patient was allowed to sit up; there are yet two small ligatures to come away.

The patient after this continued so steadily to improve that he was able to leave the hospital, July 24th sound and well to all appearances, 48 days from the time of his admission and 41 days after the operation. From the very day of the operation the patient had been able to take his food well, and had but one bad night, which was believed to arise from flatulence dependent upon the free use of carbonated water.

The patient returned to his farm, and for eighteen months was actively engaged in its labours, capable on his crutches of doing a full day's labour at husking corn in the open field.

After this time tumours, which showed themselves first in the iliac and lumbar glands, gradually extended till the whole margin of the stump ultimately became involved in a return of the affection. His death took place about two years after the operation from the growth of the malignant tumours in the groin. No post-mortem examination was made. Fig. 4 represents the dried tumour shrunken at least one-half in drying; it is attached to and appeared to have its origin from the periosteum. In its growth towards the skin it had enveloped the muscles on the under side of the limb and the intermuscular planes of connective tissue. Prior to the operation there was no enlargement of the lymphatic glands perceptible. The tumour

was marked encephaloid.

CASE III. *Extensive suppuration from a burn involving all the integument from the foot to the groin; amputation at hip-joint, with clinical*

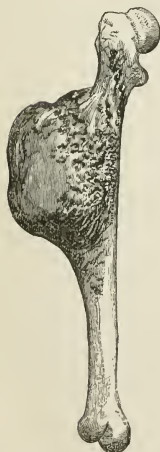


Fig. 4.

remarks, by Professor Gross, Jan. 29th, 1862.—This was the case of a girl under 12 years of age, who one year ago had both inferior extremities badly scalded, and in whom the ulceration of the cicatrices had produced an exceedingly loathsome and offensive discharge. An attempt to heal the ulcers had failed. The left thigh is drawn up by the contraction of the muscles; the leg is flexed upon the thigh, and almost the entire surface of the limb is covered with scabs and ulcerations, emitting the most offensive odour, infecting the atmosphere which the child is compelled to breathe. She is pale, anæmic, and greatly emaciated; suffers much from pain, for which it becomes necessary to give anodynes. Her appetite is good. To keep up her strength under the enormous drain upon her exhausted system, she takes the most nourishing food and about six ounces of brandy, during the twenty-four hours. The case is a most unpromising one for an operation. The shock may be too great for the enfeebled system, and she may succumb under it; there may be considerable loss of blood; suppuration must follow; erysipelas may supervene; pyæmia may result. All these accidents are to be kept in mind, and to be guarded against. Notwithstanding the untoward circumstances of the case, the operation is decided upon as affording the only, and a scarcely possible chance of saving the life of the little patient.

In the only two operations for amputation of the hip-joint performed in this city, both were recoveries. The statistics of amputation at this joint show that when performed for injuries, the operation is generally fatal, but, on the other hand, successful when for the cure of disease.

The patient was placed under the influence of chloroform; compression was made upon the abdominal aorta by Dr. Agnew, and upon the femoral artery, by Dr. Levis. The hemorrhage was thus controlled, and the operation performed with the loss of very little blood. The arteries were carefully tied, and the stump dressed in the ordinary manner.

A portion of the stump healed by first intention, moderate suppuration took place in the remainder, and the healing process went on without any untoward symptom. The patient's appetite was good; tonics and stimulants were freely administered *pro re nata*, and at this date, Feb. 15, 1862, the case is progressing finely and rapidly to a successful termination. (*Med. and Surg. Reporter*, vol. vii. 476.)

June 15, 1864, at the Jefferson College the case was shown by Prof. Gross, who remarked that "the wound had healed kindly and in great part by first intention; the ligature came away without trouble, though one remained on for four months. After the operation the patient immediately began to improve, gaining flesh rapidly. She took nine ounces of whiskey daily for two months. She now looks quite well, walking with the aid of crutches; unfortunately however, she is suffering from valvular disease of the heart, and hypertrophy of the left ventricle."

CASE IV. *Extensive lacerated wound (railroad accident), involving right thigh as far as the groin; amputation at the hip-joint*, by Dr. A. Hewson, one of the attending Surgeons of the Pennsylvania Hospital, Philadelphia, April 20, 1864.—The patient, a boy æt. 12, was run over by one of the city railways, and was admitted into the Pennsylvania Hospital, April 20, 1864. He was very much prostrated from the shock and loss of blood. The injury consisted in very great comminution of the femur and very extensive laceration of the soft parts as high as the great trochanter. The day following reaction having sufficiently taken place,

the limb was removed at the joint; ligatures were applied to the vessels. Although very little blood was lost, he died of renewed shock within twenty-four hours of the operation.

CASE V. Huge osteo-chondromatous tumour of the right thigh, following rupture of an ununited fracture of the os femoris; amputation at the hip-joint, by Professor J. Pancoast, 1865. Reported by S. Frank Potts, M.D., one of the clinical assistants in the Hospital of the Jefferson College.—Mrs. Jennie Kiernan, a stout Irish woman, thirty years old, a resident of Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, in July, 1857, had her right thigh-bone broken, three inches above the knee-joint, by the falling of a barrel of flour upon her out of a cart. No bony union followed the treatment, whatever it was, of this fracture. The false joint that resulted was not, however, a very movable one. In the December following, while going about on her crutches with her limb in this state, and only supported by a roller bandage, she fell, causing a rupture of such adhesions as had taken place between the ends of the broken bone. Being near her full term of pregnancy, she was, the day following this injury, delivered of a living child, which she afterwards nursed at the breast. In consequence of this state of things, it was thought best by the physician, who had her in charge, not to apply any fracture apparatus, till nine days afterwards, when the limb was found very painful and much swollen.

The apparatus then applied was of the most inefficient kind—simply binder's boards, without any attempt at extension or counter-extension. An entire year passed before she could sustain the weight of the body on the limb, when it was found shortened two and a half inches, but apparently firm at the fracture.

In June, 1859, a small tumour was first noticed at the outer side of the limb, at the point of fracture. It was elastic, adherent to the bone, and about the size of an ordinary marble. This tumour steadily increased in size, extending itself at first forwards, upwards, and inwards. In the course of two years, it had encased the shaft of the bone, from just above the knee-joint up to the great trochanter, the bony growth interfering with the motions of the knee-joint. After that time it increased rapidly in bulk, till the time she first presented herself to Dr. Pancoast, February, 1865, seven years and eight months after the reception of the first injury.

The thigh then measured twenty-three and three-quarter inches in circumference at its largest part, the tumour extending from four inches below the knee-joint, to the great trochanter, the bones of the leg, being unaffected. The tumour during its growth was a constant source of pain, of a throbbing character, which the patient compared to a dull tooth-ache, always aggravated in damp and cloudy days, and especially so during the periods of nursing her children, of which she had borne and nursed four since her first accident. She was still stout and lusty, and her general health seemed unimpaired, though she moved about on crutches with difficulty.

Feb. 15, 1865 The limb was amputated in the amphitheatre of Jefferson Medical College, by Prof. Pancoast, assisted by Prof. Gross, and the College hospital staff, in the presence of the class and many of the physicians and surgeons of the city. Ether alone was relied on as an anæsthetic, as in the case of Maurice Heston. The limb was very carefully drained of its blood by elevation and manipulation, and compression then made upon the abdominal aorta with the tourniquet used in the preceding

case. The operation was also performed precisely after the same method, which it is not necessary to repeat. It may be well, however, to state that the muscles about the joint were smaller, and were cut nearer their origin than in the preceding case, so as to leave but little more than skin flaps covering the wound.

The patient bore the operation well, though there was a little flagging of the respiration towards the close, which was relieved almost at once by the slackening of the tourniquet. Extremely little blood was lost; it was estimated by bystanders at not more than three ounces. The stump was dressed as in the former case, with masses of lint soaked in laudanum and covered with oiled silk. On her removal from the amphitheatre into the college hospital, she was given a half grain of sulphate of morphia in solution. She soon fell into a quiet, easy breathing sleep. Some sickness of the stomach occurred in the course of the following day, the consequence probably of the etherization, which was relieved with lime-water and milk. She had a good night's rest. The pulse a little feeble but regular as in health. The succeeding day, February 16, passed comfortably, sleeping a good deal and taking nourishment with a relish. No more morphia, or other anodyne was given internally, Dr. P. relying upon the profuse use of laudanum over the stump. During the night of the 16th she was at times restless, and a little delirious. But on the succeeding morning was quite cheerful, and when asked how she felt answered "bully," and said she believed the good priest had done his extreme unction for nothing.

On the morning of the third day, the 17th, the first and only sinister symptom appeared. This was a faint erysipelatous blush with some tenderness on the right arm, the skin having much the aspect seen at the commencement of a pyæmic affection of a joint. Dr. P. considered this to be most likely owing to reflex irritation from the stump, which he thinks at times the cause of articular pyæmic affections. He directed therefore a freer use of laudanum to the stump, and as a measure of precaution to rub the limb with oxide of zinc cerate, and to give every four hours twenty drops of the tinct. of the sesquichloride of iron. In two days after this the redness and soreness had entirely disappeared. Subsequently there was not an unpleasant symptom. The patient's eye was always bright, and her tongue kept remarkably clean. She refused stimulants in every form even that of milk punch or egg nog. She took beef essence and beef-tea from the commencement, and exhibited a marked preference for roast beef and Irish potatoes, with which she was indulged. The suppurative discharge from the stump was small in amount, and mostly came away spontaneously on the lint dressing. At the end of two weeks the greater part of the wound had healed. The long straps of adhesive plaster, with which the wound was closed, held their place so well as to require but little reapplication. The common interrupted silk sutures, with which the edges of the flaps were brought together, held their place well. From this time forward the case went on so well as to leave nothing to narrate. The use of laudanum to the stump was now suspended, and dressing made with compound elemi ointment on lint, supported with adhesive straps, substituted.

The amount of laudanum used on the face of the stump was probably unnecessarily large. About a gallon was employed in this way, certainly with results very gratifying. It alleviated the local pain, and allayed

the irritability of the system. If at any time she became restless and uneasy, a fresh application of it on the face of the stump and she would invariably in a little while fall into a gentle and quiet sleep. During the whole period of treatment, she could not be said to have lost a single night's rest or one meal's victuals.

A short time afterwards she returned to Bethlehem, with the stump perfectly healed, and to all appearance freed from disease. By a letter from Dr. F. A. Martin, of Bethlehem, dated May 9, 1866, we learn that Mrs. Kiernan has had no return of the affection, and is in the enjoyment of good health.

The wood-cut, Fig. 1, representing the appearance of the stump in Dr. Morton's case, is precisely like the one taken from the stump of Mrs. Kiernan, and may be considered a representative picture of all the stumps after amputation at the hip-joint made after the process of Prof. Pancoast.

The annexed cuts, Figs. 5 and 6, taken from a photograph, show well

Fig. 5.



Fig. 6.



the enormous size the tumour had attained—the skin and tissues adjacent to the tumour having been dissected off. It extended from the trochanter to the condyles. Fig. 5 represents an external view. Fig. 6 a section of the tumour.¹

¹ In Virchow's *Die Krankhaften Geschwülste*, vol. i., we find an illustration of this form of tumour, which in every respect resembles the section of the tumour removed by Prof. Pancoast, there defined as osteoid-chondrom. Virchow reports that the disease is usually found in the long, hollow bones, and generally at their extremities. The most common place for the growth is the articulating portion of the femur and tibia. The deposit usually occurs rapidly; upon the sawed surface great numbers of points of ossific deposit are found; near the surface distinct unconnected masses; while towards the base of the tumour they approach each other and are found continuous with the old bone. In the early stage of the disease, before calcareous deposit shows itself, the tumour is readily cut with the knife.

CASE VI. *Encephaloid disease involving the right thigh, four years' duration; amputation at the hip-joint*, by Professor Gross, at the Jefferson College, Philadelphia, October 14, 1865.—The following clinical remarks, together with notes of the case, have been furnished by Dr. F. F. Maury, Philadelphia.

Patrick Gillfoil, aged 54, a laborer, presents a tumour involving almost the entire circumference of the right thigh; measuring nineteen inches in its long diameter, and thirty-three at the greatest circumference; and extending to within two and a half inches of the groin, and below into the popliteal space.

It made its appearance four years ago, is lobulated, has a springy feel, and the subcutaneous veins are much enlarged. There is no pain or discoloration in the tumour, and, what is remarkable, it shows no tendency to ulcerate. The man's general health is good. The great bulk and weight of the growth cause lameness after exercise. What is the nature of this tumour? It is too soft to be enchondroma, which is a cartilaginous tumour, not solid enough to be fibroid, nor would a tumour of this class have attained such a magnitude in so short a time. Neither would a fatty tumour have grown so large; besides, it is more elastic, and seldom found in this locality.

From long experience, I soon, with very little doubt, took it to be encephaloid, and my reasons for this conclusion were its great size, its lobulated appearance, semi-elastic feel, and the marked enlargement of the subcutaneous veins. This last symptom is almost pathognomonic, occurring, with the exception of this class, only in connection with ovarian tumours. The disease most frequently makes its appearance in the mamma, eye, testicle, uterus, liver, lymphatic ganglions, peritoneum, and bones.

A portion of the substance of the tumour was examined by Dr. Da Costa, whose examination fully confirmed my diagnosis, having revealed the presence of cancer cells, with an unusual quantity of fibrous stroma. The older the tumour the more brain like it becomes, containing a greater number of fully developed cancer cells. It varies in consistency and chemical composition in different parts at the same time. The disease is always malignant and unforgiving in its tendency. After an indefinite period, softening occurs, and ulceration, with undermined, irregular edges; the tumour becomes a bleeding fungus, and will eventually destroy life either by hemorrhage or irritation. This tumour is entirely too large and vascular for excision, and the probability of the femoral artery being imbedded in its substance, renders all interference of no avail, except the operation of amputation at the hip-joint. This operation may be of benefit, but the disease may return in the stump, cicatrix, lymphatic ganglions, or internal organs. The primary operations have almost always proved fatal, and a previous course of suffering seems to insure the best results.

The great risk to be incurred is due to erysipelas, suppuration, and pyæmia. Danger from tetanus is so remote as hardly to admit of its being taken into account. The prevention of hemorrhage is a matter of paramount importance, thereby lessening the danger from shock, and the liability of the occurrence of pyæmia and erysipelas. To this end the limb is elevated, and, by manipulation and firm bandaging, divested as much as practicable of its blood.

The arterial circulation is controlled by means of an abdominal tourniquet, the compress of which is placed a little to the right of, and below the umbilicus. In this instance, the tumour has extended so far towards

the groin as to necessitate a deviation from the general rule as to the formation of flaps. This deviation consists in cutting from without inwards, thereby securing a sufficiency of skin of which both flaps chiefly will consist.

The patient was put under the influence of chloroform, and the operation performed by making integumentary flaps and a circular division of the muscles. The operation was essentially the same as that of Dr. Pancoast's. The hemorrhage was slight; seven ligatures were applied. The flaps were brought together by means of acupressure needles, adhesive plaster also applied, and a compress and bandage placed over the stump.

Oct. 18. The day after the operation, there was considerable gastric irritation with vomiting, a hot skin, dry tongue, and great thirst. Twenty grains of calomel were given, and a sinapism to the epigastrium. At present, pulse ninety-six, tongue coated, skin and appetite good, and rests well; wound seems uniting by first intention; there is a sero-sanguinolent discharge, which is absorbed by a sponge moistened with a solution of permanganate of potash.

25th. Progressing favourably; the amount of pus discharged does not amount to a tablespoonful; is cheerful and hopeful.

Nov. 4. Stump almost united; no pain in the part; the femoral ligature came away yesterday, the twentieth day after the operation.

16th. Left for his home one hundred miles from the city; stump almost well.

Dec. 23. A letter received from the physician who is attending Patrick, reports, that until recently, his recovery has been rather slow; stump nearly well.

CASE VII. Enormous enchondroma, involving the right thigh at the lower part; amputation at the hip-joint, by Dr. A. Hewson, one of the attending Surgeons of the Pennsylvania Hospital, 1865.—Martha Jane Reed, from Wilmington, Delaware, aged 28, was admitted into the Pennsylvania Hospital, July 24, 1865, for an enormous enchondromatous tumour, involving the right thigh at the middle and lower part. The disease had been growing for several years, and had lately become ulcerated. The patient was put under the influence of ether, and assisted by the surgical staff of the hospital and before the clinical class; disarticulation was effected on July 26; the double flap operation by transfixion, was performed; the acupressure needles were applied after considerable loss of blood, to all the vessels. Dry dressings were applied to the stump. The patient never reacted, and died fifteen hours after the operation.

CASE VIII. Secondary re-amputation at the hip-joint for osteo-myelitis, by J. H. Packard, M. D., 1865; recovery.—"Private Eben. E. Smith, Co. A, Eleventh Maine Vols., aged 19 years, was wounded at the engagement at Deep Bottom, near Drury's Bluff, Virginia, on August 16, 1864, by a musket ball, which fractured the head of the right tibia. He was admitted at the U. S. General Hospital, at Beverly, on August 22d, 1864. On admission, the injured knee-joint was swollen and painful, and there was irritative fever of a moderate grade. On September 12th, secondary hemorrhage occurred, and the thigh was amputated by circular incisions at the lower third, by Acting Assistant Surgeon T. M. Morton, U. S. A., the patient being under chloroform. The case progressed fa-

favorably until October 17th, when secondary hemorrhage recurred, and was arrested by ligating the femoral artery in Scarpa's triangle. The stump remained swollen and painful, and furnished a profuse fetid suppuration. Osteo-myelitis supervened; the end of the femur protruded and was removed by the chain-saw. Necrosis finally extended as high as the trochanters and numerous abscesses formed. On January 19th, 1865, amputation at the hip-joint was performed under chloroform, by Acting Assistant Surgeon, J. H. Packard, U. S. A., the antero-posterior flap operation being adopted. On January 27th, there was hemorrhage from the stump, and the external iliac artery was tied. The ligature separated on February 17th, and two days afterwards there was profuse bleeding from the divided artery, which was controlled by pressure, for fourteen days. After this, the patient rapidly improved. On April 12th, 1865, Smith was transferred to White Hall Hospital, near Bristol, Pennsylvania. May 27th, 1865, he was discharged from service quite well and strong, the wounds being entirely healed."¹

CASE X. Compound comminuted fracture of right femur, from wound by minie ball; amputation at hip-joint after thirty-four months, by Dr. D. H. Agnew; death from secondary hemorrhage on the twelfth day.—James McGeehen, aged 48, a native of Pennsylvania, and always in the enjoyment of excellent health, was wounded at the battle of Gettysburg, July 1, 1863. The wound was inflicted by a minie ball which entered the inner surface of right thigh in its middle third, traversing the entire thickness of the thigh and producing great comminution of the shaft of the bone. There was considerable hemorrhage at the time, although none of the larger vessels or nerves seem to have been divided. He lay upon the field for five hours, and was then removed to the hospital, where he remained in bed for fifteen weeks. A slough about one and a half inches in diameter formed around wound of entrance, and a profuse discharge continued during this period. His general health, however, kept up admirably. At the end of fifteen weeks, he left his bed for the first time, the limb being very greatly thickened, and already a tendency to form fistulous openings showing itself. Soon after one of these fistules opened, discharging a fragment of bone about one inch in length and not thicker than a crow's quill. Since that time the morbid action in the limb has steadily progressed; the original wound has long since closed; but a free discharge, averaging a gill daily for the past two years, has been kept up from numerous fistulous openings, which have successively formed. There have also been discharged, at various times, not less than fifty small scales and nodules of necrosed bone. The thigh has remained much enlarged, and has steadily been growing harder, heavier, and less manageable. During this time he has been in the habit of drinking a moderate amount of liquor, though never to excess.

At the date of his admission into the Pennsylvania Hospital, April 9, 1866, his condition was good; he was in excellent spirits, brave and hopeful. Careful examination revealed no serious organic disease of any viscus, though the feeble impulse of the heart, and the rather weak, occasionally intermitting pulse, indicated a probably fatty and weak heart. The lungs were free from organic disease, but he had been suffering for some days from a slight attack of bronchitis. He did not suffer much

¹ Circular No. 6, Surgeon General's Office, 1865, Washington, p. 49.

acnte pain, but the weight of the leg and its deformity almost prevented locomotion, whilst his health was beginning to succumb to the continuous drain. The right thigh was very much enlarged, hard and resisting, and riddled with fistulous tracks up to about one and a half inches from greater trochanter of femur, above which it seemed probable that the bone was healthy. After careful consultation, it was determined to remove the limb at the hip-joint, upon Saturday, April 21. The patient was placed upon tonic treatment with nourishing diet; his bowels were also carefully regulated. He complained of nothing, excepting his cough, which, however, gave him very little trouble.

Upon the appointed day Dr. Agnew removed the limb, in the presence of the class, at the Pennsylvania Hospital, assisted by his colleagues, Drs. Hunt and Morton, and the residents of the house. The abdominal tourniquet was employed, and by its means the circulation of the abdominal aorta was completely controlled. The method of amputation employed was the same as in the case of Dr. Morton's, by antero-posterior oval skin flaps, with a short circular flap of the muscles. The femoral artery was ligated, after the anterior flap was dissected up, the femoral vein not being ligated at all. The vessels were all secured by ligatures, twenty-one being required. The time consumed in the entire operation, including the ligation of the femoral and the disarticulation of the head of the femur, was one and a half minute. The time during which the abdominal tourniquet remained tightened was twenty-seven minutes. It may safely be said that the hemorrhage during the entire operation did not exceed f_{3ij} ; not f_{3ss} of which was arterial blood. Ether alone was employed in inducing anæsthesia, and about f_{3ij} sufficed, as he inhaled it without effort, and soon came under its influence. The stump was packed with lint. The leg, when drained entirely of blood, weighed 22 pounds, the entire weight of the body at the time being about 145 pounds. Immediately after his removal to the ward, an enema of tr. opii f_{3j} was administered; and this was repeated at 8 P. M., when stump was closed by lead suture, and dressed with cerate.

22d. He has entirely reacted from the very slight amount of shock following the operation. Pulse, which under agitation from the approaching operation had been averaging from 100 to 115, has fallen to 96; respirations, 20; skin sweating and pleasantly warm; no stimulus; moderate diet. R. Tr. opii f_{3j} , t. d., by enema.

23d. Perfectly comfortable. Has passed a quiet night; has a good appetite. A considerable part of stump has united by first intention, and there is only a little greasy, watery discharge from the inner angle. Dry dressing continued.

24th. Doing excellently. Discharge thin and small, but flaps are rapidly uniting. R. Whiskey f_{3iv} daily, and Basham's Mixt. f_{3ss} t. d. Dry dressing continued.

25th. Has not an unpleasant symptom, save a rather frequent bronchitic cough. The flaps around entire front of stump are united; the discharge comes from the angles, and is evidently due to the breaking down of the subcutaneous fat; laudanum enemata now given twice daily; warm water dressing substituted.

26th. Eats and sleeps well; troubled by his cough, which is quite severe, accompanied by tenacious mucous sputa; laudanum enemata suspended, and sol. morph. sulph. f_{3ij} to f_{3ss} given each night; during the day a sedative expectorant mixture every three hours. The stimulus has not been increased.

27th and 23th. Steadily improving; cough less troublesome; discharge becoming more purulent, and increasing in quantity; warm water dressing still applied.

29th. Progressing admirably; discharge continues purulent and quite abundant, amounting probably to f̄iij or f̄iv daily.

30th. Much the same, excepting that cough is again more troublesome. The union of the flaps is daily becoming more secure, and the discharge now consists of laudable pus; four ligatures came away.

May 1. Seems brighter and better than any day heretofore; eats heartily; stump looks perfectly healthy; discharge moderate; two more ligatures came away.

2d. Doing excellently; the stump is rapidly consolidating, the skin remaining as soft and healthy as on day of operation. Most of the stitches have been cut away, the union being sufficiently firm around anterior part of stump. The pulsation of the external iliac artery, which for several days was very marked, has diminished greatly, and seems as though propagated through a firm clot. He has been troubled considerably with cough for past two days.

8 A. M., pulse 105, resp. 22; 8 P. M., pulse 100, resp. 24. At 12 o'clock, midnight, in the absence of the night watch, hemorrhage occurred, and on his return the patient was found dead.

Upon removing the dressing, it was seen that a secondary hemorrhage had taken place. Most of the blood was retained either in stump or inside the dressing; the little that had escaped had flowed from inner angle of stump, back under the body. The stump was immediately torn open, and the hemorrhage found to have proceeded from the femoral vessel. The most powerful restorative measures were employed for a long time, but without producing the slightest effect.

Upon dissecting the stump the union was found to be complete over one-half of the entire surface of the flaps, whilst the deeper portions of the stump were covered with healthy granulations. The femoral vein, which was not ligated, was entirely occluded; the femoral artery was patulous, its inner coat projecting somewhat beyond the other two; the inner coat of artery was deeply stained and roughened for at least $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch above the extremity; higher up it appeared perfectly healthy; the ligature which had secured the vessel was still attached to a shred of the outer fibrous coat. It had evidently very recently cut its way through, and still retained in its loop the end of the vessel which had sloughed off. Lying immediately in front of the femoral vessels, imbedded in a recent clot, was found the plug which had been driven out of the artery. This was a firm, flesh-coloured clot, of the calibre of the vessel, and long enough to reach up to the origin of the deep epigastric and circumflex iliac arteries.

No positive testimony could be obtained that the patient had one of his violent spells of coughing immediately before the accident, as all in the ward were asleep, excepting the watchmen; but all the appearances render it highly probable that directly after the ligature of the femoral became detached the violent succussion of the diaphragm incident to a paroxysm of coughing had expelled the clot from that vessel. All the other vessels appeared completely obliterated. None but the thoracic and abdominal cavities were examined. The lungs were large, and free from pleuritic adhesions. They were somewhat emphysematous, and

showed large amount of pigment over surface. The anterior portions were anæmic, but posteriorly there was marked congestion of lower lobes. The heart was quite flabby, and moderately dilated. There was no valvular disease or apparent insufficiency, but microscopic examination showed advanced fatty degeneration of the muscular fibres. The liver was also very soft and fatty. Kidneys anæmic and pale. Other viscera healthy. The large vessels and heart contained very little blood. There was a small collection of unhealthy purulent matter in manubrium of the sternum. The limb, upon dissection, showed very great disease of all the soft parts between the trochanters of the femur and the knee-joint. The muscles had undergone fatty degeneration; their sheaths were very much hypertrophied, and of almost cartilaginous density.

Fig. 8.

Fig. 7.



Toward the bone there was a thick layer of tenacious colloid bone cartilage, apparently resulting from periosteal disease. Through this dense and morbid mass radiated fistulous tracks in every direction, many of them containing small spiculæ of bone. The bone itself was diseased from the condyles to within $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch of lesser trochanter. The shaft had been fractured obliquely, with considerable comminution, and union had taken place by formation of a very large amount of dense bony structure, which projected in spurs and ridges in all directions. (See Fig. 7.) The original track of the ball was marked by a deep groove, and one or two small fragments of lead were found imbedded in the bone. There was a large anfractuous cavity, bridged over in places by newly formed bone, which still contained several quite large sequestra. There was incipient periosteal disease along *linea aspera* up to the trochanters. A section of the bone (see

Fig. 8) showed that if osteo-mylitis had existed, it had not extended within several inches of trochanters.

CASE XI. *Amputation at the hip-joint for extensive disease following a gunshot fracture of the femur.*—The following brief facts of the case have been furnished me by one of the attending surgeons of the Episcopal Hospital, Phila., who was present when the operation was performed.

The patient was a discharged soldier; he had been an inmate of several of the military hospitals, was wounded at the battle of Winchester, Va., and received a gunshot fracture of the femur; extensive necrosis with great shortening of the limb followed.

Amputation at the coxo-femoral articulation was performed by Dr. Forbes, one of the staff-surgeons of the hospital, May 5, 1866. The operation in the main was essentially the same as that performed by Dr. Agnew, at the Penna. Hospital. The abdominal tourniquet was applied; the patient lived sixty hours.

From the histories of the foregoing cases, the plan of operation and the results, we are able to present several important deductions in regard

to disarticulation at the hip-joint, the most formidable of all operations the surgeon is called upon to undertake.

1st. In cases of long-standing disease, tumours involving the bone, soft parts, or both, necrosis following gunshot wounds, reamputations, or where suppuration has existed for a long period, the constitution being more or less accustomed to the drain and irritation, a more favourable result after amputation may be expected than in those cases where the operation has been performed for recent injury, where it has almost invariably proved fatal.

2d. In regard to the choice of operation, the integumentary flap operation, with a circular division of the muscles close to the pelvis, may be considered a safer operation, and is preferred to all others by Professor Pancoast, who adopted this method in both of his cases, as did also Professor Gross in his second case; Cases IX., X., and XI. were also after the same plan; by this there is not so much muscular tissue left to suppurate, and we have more reasonable hope for primary union to a considerable extent. In small shrivelled limbs, illustrated by Cases I. and III., where there is hardly any tissue about the joint, except skin, the flap operation is probably as good.

3d. The loss of blood during the operation being primarily the chief source of danger, we find the abdominal tourniquet absolutely required, and no operation at the joint should be undertaken without it. Having the control of the circulation throughout the extremities, we are able to guard against all loss of blood, which otherwise might tend to develop pyæmia, or even immediately to allow of a fatal collapse.

4th. The after-treatment of the stump by the application of *pure laudanum* (the parts being constantly kept wet with it) was first used by Dr. Pancoast in his first case in 1860, and answered admirably. In his second case, in 1865, he was able to put the patient asleep at any time, by simply increasing the quantity of the laudanum used; more than a gallon of the tincture was thus used in this last case. This dressing was employed in Case IX., which came under my care, and answered every indication.

Acupressure alone has not been fairly tested in this operation. The first time the needles were applied was in 1860, by Dr. Pancoast; one needle was placed on the femoral artery, and one on the femoral vein; the rest of the vessels were ligated, and for additional security a ligature was also placed on the femoral. In Case VII., at which operation I assisted at the Penna. Hospital, the needles were applied to all the vessels, and much blood was lost before they were adjusted; the patient never reacted, and died in about fifteen hours after the operation.

In a procedure of such magnitude, and where the loss of any blood subsequently would be so dangerous, the surgeon would feel better satisfied in the knowledge of having a ligature rather than a needle on the femoral, when it has to be applied so high.

Table showing the Results of Amputations at the Hip-Joint.

Number.	Operator.	Date of operation.	Sex.	Age.	Disease.	Interval between first appearance of disease or injury and operation.	Operation.	Result.	Cause of death.	Remarks.
1	Duffy	1840	Female	6	Morbus coxarius			Recovered		17 years afterwards the patient was successfully delivered in the Lying-in Department of the Almshouse; stump well.
2	Pancoast	1860	Male	32	Medullary sarcoma	One year	Integumentary flaps and circular of muscles; acupressure and ligatures	Recovered		Died 2 years afterwards from a return of the disease in the lymphatics adjacent to the stump.
3	Gross	1862	Female	12	Loss of integument and suppuration following a burn	15 months		Recovered		Remained well. 1864.
4	Hewson	1864	Male	6	Railroad injury	Within 24 hours		Died	Renewed shock	Lived twelve hours.
5	Pancoast	1865	Female	30	Huge osteo-chondromatous tumour	7 years and 8 months	Integumentary flaps and circular of muscles	Recovered		Remains well.
6	Gross	1865	Male	54	Encephaloid	4 years	Integumentary flaps and circular of muscles	Recovered		Remains well.
7	Hewson	1865	Female	28	Enchondroma	Several years	Flap operation; acupressure	Died	Shock	Lived fifteen hours.
8	Packard	1865	Male	21	Reamputation of stump; disease of bone	5 months	Flap operation	Recovered		Remains well.
9	Morton	1866	Male	21	Reamputation for osteo-myelitis	16 months	Integumentary flaps and circular of muscles	Recovered		Remains well.
10	Agnew	1866	Male	48	Disease of femur and soft parts following a gunshot wound	3 years	Integumentary flaps and circular of muscles	Died	Hemorrhage from the femoral 12 days after operation	Lived sixty hours
11	Forbes	1866	Male	..	Diseased femur following gunshot wound		Integumentary flaps and circular division of muscles	Died	Lived sixty hours	

ART. II.—*On the Predisposing Causes of Epidemic Diseases.*

By A. P. MERRILL, M. D., of New York.

IN view of the prevalence of epidemic diseases, and especially of the present prevalence of cholera, the most general and fatal of modern epidemics, it is important to consider what are some of the more prominent of the predisposing, as contradistinguished from the proper exciting, causes of this class of diseases. These causes are too numerous and varied to be named in detail; but if only a few prominent considerations in regard to them can be duly presented, it may lead to some abatement in the ravages of disease.

As far as practicable the proper distinction should, of course, be made between predisposing and exciting causes, which are often strangely confounded, and sometimes spoken of interchangeably. The former may be held to embrace all those deleterious influences which, by disturbing the normal functions of the body, render it more susceptible than in a state of health to the action of the latter. *In the fullest manifestation of these bodily functions, with the usual concomitant of mental health and vigour, man is often enabled to resist the influence of exciting causes of disease so as to escape a prevailing epidemic entirely; or, having suffered an attack, he may be able to overcome the peculiar disturbance of normal function caused by the disease, without the agency of medical treatment. But anything which disturbs these normal functions, whether to the extent requiring remedial measures or not, must be considered a predisposing cause of epidemic disease.

Exciting causes, on the contrary, must be regarded as specific influences, the tendency of which is, under all circumstances, to produce specific results. Thus, the exciting cause of cholera, whatever may be its character and origin, is capable of producing no other disease than cholera, and the same is true of smallpox and all other specific diseases. Each must have its specific cause. Periodic fever, which prevails so extensively throughout the world, is doubtless due to the action of a specific cause, without which the disease cannot exist; but the different varieties of this disease as indicated by the nosology in common use, and dependent mainly upon the particular organs and tissues especially disordered, must be produced by the co-operation of some additional agency, which determines whether the fever at any particular time and place shall assume the epidemic form of a gastric, enteric, hepatic, or pneumonic disease. But whatever may be the type and form, it can scarcely be doubted that those persons are most liable to suffer, who have been living under the influence of certain predisposing causes, such as I shall have occasion to refer to in the course of this essay. While exciting causes are known only by their effects, and we have no means of controlling them, the origin and progress of predisposing causes

are mostly discoverable, and may be prevented or avoided. We must therefore look to the power we have over this class of causes as our principal hope and dependence, in guarding ourselves against the prevalence and fatality of epidemic diseases.

Nothing is more common than to attribute the invasion of an epidemic disease to certain agencies as exciting causes, in the shape of decomposition, giving rise to mephitic effluvia and to every variety of offensive exhalation; but although these may of themselves sometimes excite diseased action in the human system, there are many good reasons for believing that such deleterious influences only prepare or predispose those who are exposed to them, to the operation of the specific and exciting cause of any particular epidemic, the source and character of which cause are alike unknown. It is not less true than fortunate, that it seldom happens that more than one kind of epidemic cause prevails largely at one and the same time and place, the tendency of which is to produce a specific disease, but other diseases, and especially those of a febrile character, will always exhibit more or less of the characteristics of the prevailing epidemic. If the epidemic be yellow fever, persons suffering with smallpox, will die of black vomit. If cholera, cases of fever will certainly present symptoms of that disease, and become exhausted by serous evacuations and cramps.

The predisposing causes of epidemic diseases are to be distinguished from the exciting causes by the fact that they operate upon the organism, not to produce a specific disease, but to impair its normal condition, so as to render it less capable of resisting the influence of the true epidemic and exciting cause. No amount of such predisposition caused by unwholesome influences can be supposed capable of originating a specific epidemic disease without the co-operation of the specific cause of such disease. Whenever it is said, therefore, that in certain localities causes of disease exist which may produce cholera, yellow fever, &c., it must be understood that one or another of these diseases may appear and become epidemic in such place, by reason of the prevalence of its exciting cause among a people thus predisposed. To contend that such unwholesome condition may operate as a specific cause of such epidemic, would imply a necessary connection between the reputed causes of disease and the prevailing epidemic, and require us to expect that such epidemic, or several kinds of epidemics, must appear wherever such defective sanitary police is found.

The defective police of cities is sometimes supposed to give rise to the exciting cause of cholera, but in portions of London and Paris such defective police existed to a great extent for centuries, and no doubt favoured the spread of epidemic diseases in those cities more or less every year, without ever producing a single case of cholera, which disease made its appearance only when the proper exciting cause reached those localities from the distant east. Rio Janeiro escaped yellow fever until a recent period, and the disease has not yet made its appearance in Canton, Calcutta,

Constantinople, and many other large eastern cities, notwithstanding, the defective sanitary police of those localities, and the favouring influences of climate. Hence, I infer that these are only predisposing causes of epidemic diseases, and that no specific disease becomes epidemic until the proper exciting cause of such disease appears to co-operate with them. Quite a different example is found in the little city of Natchez, among whose inhabitants squalid poverty found no place, whose streets had never known a beggar, and whose sanitary police was unexceptionable. This gem of a city, situated upon a lofty bluff overlooking the Mississippi River, and enjoying the refreshing breezes daily moving inland from the broad bosom of the Gulf, became subject to frequent visitations of yellow fever, and suffered great mortality whenever the specific cause of that disease extended northward from the West India Islands and entered within the boundaries of the United States. It was not, however, until 1817 that the disease first visited Natchez, when a powerful predisposing cause had been created by an extensive grading of the streets, but here, as elsewhere, the epidemic having once made a lodgment, it continues to occur epidemically and sporadically.

The origin of the cholera pestilence has often been attributed to mephitic exhalations from decaying materials floating upon the river Ganges, and also to certain filthy habits and customs of the Mohammedan pilgrims; but the sacred river of India had borne its millions of dead bodies to the sea, and the pilgrims to the holy shrine at Mecca had practised their revolting superstitions for ages before epidemic cholera was known either in India or Arabia. The decay of human carcasses in the one case, and of animal sacrifices in the other, together with all the conditions which are calculated to impair healthful vigour of body, acted all the while as they do now as predisposing causes of epidemic diseases, but without the concurrent agency of the specific and exciting cause of cholera that disease could not exist and did not. When it made its first appearance in India, and assumed in that country all the characteristics of an epidemic, there must have been good reason to expect that it would extend its ravages to Europe; but it took many years to do this, and while there were no signs of its approach the inhabitants of the worst portions of Paris and London were as secure from its attacks as ever before, notwithstanding the existence of all the reputed causes growing out of a defective sanitary police. And the inhabitants of these and other cities are secure still, excepting only that occasional sporadic cases may occur where the disease has before appeared, unless the specific cause of cholera should happen to reach them in its progress round the world as an epidemic, and then its extent and intensity may depend much upon the existence of predisposing causes, such as operate upon the system to prepare it for attacks of other epidemic diseases as well as this.

These predisposing causes may be arranged under the following heads, having reference to their character and origin; namely, *telluric*, *meteorologic*,

logic, such as appertain to *domiciliation*, to *hereditary taints*, to *dietetic influences*, and to *vicious habits of life*; and these I propose to consider in their order.

Telluric influences of an unwholesome character, in the existence of which there is such general belief, have hitherto escaped detection by chemical analysis and by every kind of philosophical inquiry; unless, indeed, it prove true that they are due to the existence of sporules from some of the forms of fungous growths, which are said to abound in sickly districts. It is known from long observation that certain forms of disease prevail most in the vicinity of natural marshes, especially when, after having been for a time saturated with water, they have become quite dry. And I am well convinced that these deleterious effects of drying soils are not confined to natural marshes, existing extensively in country localities, but are produced also, and sometimes in greater intensity, by quasi-marshes in cities, artificially created by grading the streets and filling up low grounds, without proper attention to drainage. There appears to be no room for doubt that there are deleterious influences in connection with such localities, whatever may be their character, which operate as causes of various forms of periodic disease, and as predisponents of epidemic diseases.

There is abundant proof of this in New York alone, but the smaller cities of Natchez and Memphis, during my residence in those places, afforded striking illustrations of this doctrine. Yellow fever, cholera, measles, scarlatina, whooping-cough, diarrhœa, dysentery, and other diseases becoming epidemic on different occasions, always prevailed earliest and in their gravest forms in those localities where large deposits of earth had been made, without proper attention to drainage. And it has seemed to make little difference in the result, whether such deposits consisted wholly of fresh-dug earth, or a mixture of common city refuse, and the decomposing materials which abound in what is carted away from the habitations of man, as at once offensive to the senses and injurious to health. In all cities these health-destroying influences prevail more or less; and similar effects are often observed in connection with the cellars of dwellings both in city and country localities, which are a portion of the year kept wet by the oozing of surface water from the ground. In their drying state in summer and autumn, these cellars are as insalubrious as the marshy districts in the open air, affording evidence of the incorrectness of the prevailing opinion, that paludal influences as causes of fever are dependent upon the rays of the sun, excepting only as they facilitate the drying process by the power of solar heat. Sunlight, under all circumstances, appears to be a powerful conservator of health, and the want of it may justly be considered an effective predisponent of disease.

Dry and sandy soils, also, into which the rains readily disappear by absorption, low and barren clay-soils and rocky and precipitous districts, from the surface of which water runs quickly away, the embankments of

canals and railroads, and the beds of inconstant streams, all exercise more or less in dry and hot weather the same deleterious effects as drying marshes, dependent probably upon the fact of their being destitute of vegetable covering. Nowhere else on earth has yellow fever been represented as more malignant in its character than I saw it at the Bay of St. Louis, Mississippi, in 1820, and at Pensacola and other parts of West Florida, in 1822, both being situated on dry, sandy, and barren soils, and the seasons of those epidemic visitations being unusually hot and dry. The epidemic prevalence of the same disease at Natchez and Memphis, as well as the sporadic cases which have occurred upon the lines of certain southern railroads, also afford abundant illustrations of the truth of this theory of morbid causes arising from dry and naked soils. The introduction into the south of that remarkable production, the Bermuda grass, has done much to remedy this state of things, and to improve the public health. Bare soils have not only been covered over, but bayous and gullies have been filled up, and these, together with railroad embankments and levees, have been coated over with a dense sward of vegetable life. The morbid influence of bare and barren localities cannot be due to vegetable decomposition, for vegetation is deficient in quantity, and the want of moisture is unfavourable to fermentation; nor is it dependent upon the previous condition of standing water, as in the case of natural marshes, nor upon the heat and light of the sun, for these are wanting in cellars, but only, so far as is yet known, upon the absence of healthful vegetation, and possibly, the consequent production of certain morbid growths which disorder the normal functions of the body. Periodic diseases are endemic in all such localities, and the cause producing these, whatever it may be, appears to be a predisposing cause of various kinds of epidemic disease. Smallpox, measles, and hooping-cough, which are contagious diseases, and yellow fever, cholera, diphtheria, &c., not contagious, all prevail as epidemics most actively and severely in localities of this kind.

From the earliest period of medical history, these telluric influences have been supposed to exercise their baneful effects upon the health of mankind in all parts of the world, and without its ever having been discovered why it is that, independent of human agency, one locality is more or less healthful than another. No certain clue to the nature and origin of the cause has been discovered, and we only know now what was known and taught by Hippocrates, that marshy districts in their drying state are prolific of fever, and favourable to the spread of epidemic diseases. It may be true and susceptible of proof, that the morbid agencies are due to certain forms of vegetable growth, or to some variety of animalcular life, and that prevention is practicable. Such suggestions have often been made, but we are as yet without any certain knowledge upon the subject, and his will be a high honour who discovers the cause and the remedy.

Meteorologic influences have also, in all ages and countries, been con-

sidered prolific agencies of disease. During the prevalence of epidemics of every kind, whether contagious or non-contagious, we hear much of atmospheric influences and infected air, as affording both predisposing and exciting causes of the disease; and a distinguished medical authority long ago attributed these visitations to an epidemic constitution of the atmosphere, without venturing to suggest in what it consists. The common belief among men everywhere has always been, that maladies prevailing epidemically, whatever their character and severity, are justly attributable to noxious aerial agents inhaled into the lungs. But the science of chemistry, in all its boasted perfectability, has not been able to determine in what these morbid causes consist. Experts with the improved microscope have been equally at fault, and epidemic diseases of every variety have spread over large portions of the earth, devastating cities, villages, and country localities, without being attended in any case by any certain evidence that the chemical composition of the atmosphere is at all changed from the normal standard, or that it is charged with substances to produce such results. On the contrary, it has often been remarked that, so far as can be determined, either by the senses or by chemical analysis, the air, while the most fatal epidemics are prevailing, appears to be of unexceptionable purity.

This appears the more remarkable since the proper constituents of atmospheric air are well ascertained and established; and since so great a uniformity is known to be maintained amid all the mutations incident to chemical decomposition and the exhalations and absorptions of animal and vegetable life. It is, indeed, among the wonders of nature that so great a uniformity is maintained, and the diffusion of the heavier and lighter portions provided for by an unerring and invariable law. Still, the researches of geologists afford reasons for believing that before the creation of the higher orders of animal life, the constituent proportions were somewhat different, and such as would not now answer the purposes of man; showing a providential arrangement for the preservation of life and health. The course of nature in regard to this matter is paramount, and all observation shows that, except in confined localities where the law of diffusion is partially checked, no considerable change in the atmospheric constitution can be effected by artificial means. The closest analysis results in determining the relative proportions of oxygen, nitrogen, and carbonic acid to be maintained everywhere, whether epidemic diseases are prevalent or not. And when epidemics do prevail, it cannot be ascertained that new gases or vapors are infused into the atmospheric mass, to account for the change.

In confined localities, where the law of diffusion cannot have free scope, the proper proportions of atmospheric ingredients may indeed be seriously disturbed; but it has been sufficiently proved that such condition does not always act as a predisposing cause of epidemic disease, and it has even been supposed that these deteriorations in the air respired have served to protect the human constitution from the effects of certain morbid influences.

In 1819 I visited the city prison in New Orleans, and found it closely packed with men whose bodies, nearly naked, were reeking with sweat. There was little chance of ventilation through the small and grated openings, and it was with difficulty that any one could enter it from the open air. The odour was repulsive and sickening, and it cannot be doubted that the atmosphere was deprived of its proper proportion of oxygen. The prisoners presented the appearance of great prostration of vital energy, and some of them sickened and died from the effects of the confinement; but not one had the yellow fever, although the disease was prevailing in the city as an epidemic; and the same is reported in regard to other epidemics of that disease since that time, the city prison being the only place of exemption. Men die in such confinement of suffocation, as in the Black Hole of Calcutta; but they do not contract yellow fever or cholera from epidemic influence as readily as in the open air.

But the atmosphere, although itself unchanged and innocuous, may become, it is supposed, the vehicle by which the invisible spores of fungi or microscopic animalcula are conveyed into the human system as they happen to be wafted to and fro by the winds, each variety of spore or animalcule tending to produce, in proportion to its abundance, a specific form of disease, which in this way becomes epidemic. This hypothesis is not without plausibility, but no certain proof of its truth has yet been presented. The cell theory of physiologists, which accounts for every variety of living structure and much of functional movement by the formation, subdivision, and multiplication of cells, seems to afford a better basis for a theory of causation. Every epidemic disease may be supposed to have its own peculiar cell-cause, operating upon the system specifically to produce its peculiar train of symptoms; and to an extent commensurate with the influences favourable to the reproduction of cells, and the predisposition of bodies acted upon. In contagious diseases these morbid cells may be supposed to emanate from the bodies of the sick; and in diseases not contagious to originate elsewhere. But in both cases alike to be conveyed by currents of air, by ships and animals, by travel and commerce; a single cell, under influences favourable to its growth and propagation, being sufficient to produce its proper disease, under these favourable conditions, in proper time.

This cell theory affords us a better opportunity than either the animalcular or sporule theory for explaining certain anomalies in etiology which present many difficulties; such as the escape from disease of persons crowded into badly ventilated prisons and tenements, and those exposed to certain mephitic exhalations, commonly considered exciting causes of epidemic disease. Certain sections of large cities, streets, wharves, sewers, and cesspools, and various kinds of manufacturing establishments, are productive of mephitic gases more or less offensive to the senses, giving abundant occasion for complaint; but it is far from being true that such localities

are *always* more subject than others to attacks of epidemic diseases. On the contrary, it often happens that an epidemic bears lightly upon those who are thus exposed, while other portions of the same city, more highly favoured in their sanitary police, suffer from the prevalence of the most fatal grade of the disease. It is not to be inferred from all this that such mephitic exhalations are harmless of evil to the human constitution, or that they are not predisposing causes of disease in general, but only that they are unfavourable to the action of the present specific and exciting cause—antagonistic, it may be, to the development and multiplication of the one particular cell-cause then prevailing. Every cell wafted within the scope of such influence may perish for want of its proper pabulum, even under the operation of predisposing causes giving rise to much suffering and mortality.

Electricity and magnetism, temperature, moisture, and atmospheric pressure may, in their varying conditions, become predisposing causes of certain epidemic diseases; but there seems to be no good reasons for believing that any of these, either in their excess or deficiency, are exciting causes, and therefore essential to the prevalence of any particular epidemic. The yellow fever has by some been considered an exception, and it cannot be doubted that heat of climate is favourable to its extension and fatality, inasmuch as the disease prevails as an epidemic only in hot seasons and countries; but it is not essential to its existence, for sporadic cases occur in localities wherever the disease has once been epidemic, both in the hot and cold season, and it is often more severe in the latter than the former. Heat of climate, therefore, although favourable to the prevalence of an epidemic of yellow fever, cannot be considered essential to the existence of the disease.

There must be a specific exciting cause of every epidemic disease, without which the disease does not exist; but, whatever may be the character of this cause, there seems to be a necessity, in the present state of etiological knowledge, for much reliance on predisposing causes, or for dependence upon a mysterious agency sometimes denominated, for want of a better term, *epidemic influence*, or else there would not be times and seasons of pestilence, and other times and seasons of exemption. There must be a dynamic power exercised over the germ of the disease, in whatever shape or form it may be, and upon the existence of which its activity depends. The specific cause of cholera, for instance, must owe its origin, increase, and expansion to some favouring condition without which it would not have been produced, or, being produced, it would have lain dormant forever. As the army-worm which eats away the grass and corn, the cotton-worm which devours the foliage of the cotton-plant alone, and the grasshopper and locust which feed upon vegetation almost indiscriminately, only flourish at certain times and seasons when the conditions necessary to their increase happen to exist, so may these reputed causes of epidemic diseases be dependent upon certain conditions peculiarly favourable to each of them,

and without which they can appear only to a very limited extent, producing at most only a few sporadic cases of disease, however active may be the predisposing causes which invite attack.

The fact, now so well established, that influenza, cholera, and yellow fever, when prevailing epidemically, often attack the crews and passengers of ships at sea, and which could not have derived the disease from any place where it was then prevailing, would seem to justify the conclusion that some meteorologic influence must prevail in mid-ocean, and pass from continent to continent without human agency. But of this nothing is known except the results, and there may be equal propriety in attributing the disease to either animalcules, sporules, or morbid cells, and perhaps also to magnetic agency, but it cannot well be assigned in this case to decomposition or telluric exhalations. In the holds of ships at sea, and especially in long voyages, and in the modes of life among mariners and emigrants, there may be abundant sources of predisposing causes, laying the subjects exposed to them more or less liable to the action of the epidemic or exciting cause; but it cannot be supposed that the disease is in any such case the effect of the former, without the proper and specific agency of the latter. Personal contagion in these cases is quite out of the question; and the communication of the disease by means of exhalations from the dejections of those affected by the cholera, is equally improbable.

Domiciliation.—Although the idea commonly connected with the word epidemic is what its etymology implies, that it refers to a disease visited upon the people at large, it often happens that particular habitations suffer more than others similarly located, and sometimes that the disease confines its ravages to a single domicile. If it be a contagious disease, it will, of course, be communicated to unprotected persons who are exposed to it, and thus be conveyed to other domiciles; but it will still fail to present all the characteristics of an epidemic, except in the household where it appeared and has principally prevailed. Smallpox, measles, scarlatina, and hooping-cough occur in this way; more commonly cholera and yellow fever, and especially diphtheria, which frequently attacks every member of a family where it originates, without extending to any other in the same neighbourhood.

I have known both yellow fever and cholera to be thus circumscribed. In 1854 the cholera was confined to a single block in Memphis, and not communicated beyond, excepting only to a few individuals who had slept within the infected block, or sphere of epidemic influence. It has been a common event in the South for epidemic diseases prevailing among negroes to be confined to a single plantation, and sometimes even to a single negro cabin. Cholera, yellow fever, pneumonia, dysentery, diphtheria, and other diseases have been thus limited within given bounds; and I have been in professional attendance upon a plantation of more than one hundred souls, one-tenth of whom were white persons, not one of whom escaped an attack

of yellow fever within the space of thirty days. From the octogenarian to the new-born babe, all had the disease, and every fatal case terminated in black vomit. So virulent was the epidemic influence in this case, that several persons who had volunteered their services in nursing the sick died of the disease, and in no instance did any one escape who had slept a single night on the premises. Other plantations in the neighbourhood—those within half a mile—escaped the disease entirely, although there was frequent intercourse between them. No case of yellow fever had ever occurred at this place previously, but since that time it has been frequently visited by the disease, sporadically.

It can scarcely be doubted that these limited epidemics, of which little notice has been taken by authors, are due to the same causes which produce more extended ravages of disease. It is from such beginnings, indeed, that the same diseases, under other and more favourable conditions, expand over large portions of the earth. Could we trace the great epidemics to their origin, we should probably find their starting-point to be some obscure domicile, whence they expand in certain directions according to favouring circumstances, and become fatal in proportion to the activity of the exciting cause and the predisposition prevailing among the people. Admitting the truth of the cell theory as applied to epidemic etiology, we may presume that any agency which can give rise to a single morbid cell may, if continued, cause an unlimited multiplication of its cell-kind, and thus account for the prevalence and expansion of the particular disease which is its specific effect upon the human organism, those individuals and communities suffering most severely which are under the influence of the strongest predisposing causes.

In the investigation of predisposing causes, in both cold and hot climates, during the prevalence of epidemic diseases, I have observed that the decomposition of vegetable and animal substances sometimes abounds and sometimes not. The same inconstancy exists in reference to all sorts of filth, crowded tenements, and defective ventilation. Infirmary and predisposition to disease exist, and epidemics prevail, both with and without these conditions, leaving it at least doubtful as to their uniform agency in facilitating the spread of all epidemic diseases. But, so far as my information extends, drying soils which have been long saturated with water, and especially those which are deficient in living vegetable covering, never fail to act as predisposing causes of epidemic diseases, whether in-doors or out. Cellars partly filled with water, like ponds and pools in the open air, are quite harmless of these effects while the water remains in them; but when it is drawn off, or subsides by evaporation and absorption, and while the earth is undergoing the drying process, then it is that the predisponent influence is the most powerful, and disease most likely to occur.

Cities have most to fear from this condition of cellars, while in country localities the out-door influences of drying soils are most likely to abound;

and nothing is more certain than that both endemic and epidemic diseases prevail most where these conditions exist. No doubt they give rise to specific and exciting causes of certain forms of disease characterized by periodicity; and when we observe that all epidemic diseases give preference to such localities, it is fair to presume that the human system is predisposed by them to be acted upon by the specific cause of any epidemic which may at any time prevail, whether it come in the form of electricity, animalcules, sporules, morbid cells, or other agency not yet suggested. While we are aware of these uniform coincidences, it would be unreasonable to ignore the fact of evil influences merely because we are unable to understand the mode of their operation.

To guard against these limited epidemics connected with domiciliation, the same rules should be observed as in cases of the more general prevalence of the same diseases. For obvious reasons, the preventive measures required are the same as in regard to larger fields of operation. Stagnant water resting upon surfaces which are afterwards to become dry, and especially cellars alternately wet and dry, are to be remedied by thorough drainage, and every such out-door surface is to be covered, when practicable, with growing vegetation. These, according to my observations, are essential measures of prevention, and should not be considered of secondary importance to the avoidance of confined air and the products of fermentation.

It is worthy of remark, in this connection, that long observation justifies the belief in the greater prevalence of epidemic influences near the surface of the ground. Other things being equal, those who sleep in cellars and upon the lower floors are more liable to attacks of the disease in its graver forms than such as have their sleeping apartments in the more elevated rooms of the house. This may be considered a reason not only for going to the upper stories to sleep, but also for the construction of elevated dormitories. It may be found safer during the prevalence of epidemic diseases to mount upward for the enjoyment of nightly repose, than to travel any distance without such elevation.

But in regard to individual security, no preventive measure is more to be regarded than that of a removal from the infected dwelling as soon as the presence of the disease becomes well ascertained. This, indeed, is the only course which insures positive safety. There may be benefit in liming, fumigating, ventilating, scrubbing, whitewashing, painting, and a general cleaning and renovating of the premises, but in a large majority of cases it is evident that these measures fail to afford protection to those exposed to the epidemic ravages, and the disease runs its usual course, as if nothing had been done to arrest its progress. Whatever may have been their efficacy as preventives, of which we cannot well judge, it has never been known that an epidemic was arrested in its course by any such preventive measures. When a fatal epidemic once invades a domicile, there can be no hope of removing it by any means yet discovered; and the same is true,

also, of cities and larger districts of country. While the disease does not appear, there may be hope of escaping it; but when it invades a community, large or small, it will certainly continue to prevail for the usual period of its visitations, in spite of all efforts to dislodge it. Not only so, but the particular domicile, city, or larger area of its prevalence will thereafter be subject to returns of the same disease while it continues to afflict mankind. Hence the occasional occurrence of sporadic cases in all such localities; and hence, too, the common fact of the first appearance of subsequent visitations of the same epidemic disease just where it originally occurred; showing either that predisposing causes are more rife there than elsewhere, or that the exciting cause has never been wholly removed.

Hereditary and Constitutional Taints.—Certain temperaments and diatheses are supposed to be transmissible from one generation to another, as well as certain hereditary diseases, such as scrofula and cancer; and the same is true, doubtless, of idiosyncrasies, and predispositions to contagious and epidemic diseases. In these latter cases there is, probably, a hereditary deficiency in cerebral and nervous energy, which is as much a predisposing cause of disease, as the same condition when produced by external agencies, such as we have been considering. The scrofulous, scorbutic, and certain nervous diatheses, with concurring temperaments, which have become hereditary in certain families, undoubtedly have their influence in predisposing the system to the action of the exciting causes of epidemic diseases, explaining the otherwise unaccountable fact, that under the same exposure some who are apparently in perfect health suffer earlier and more violent attacks than others, and that certain whole families suffer greater fatality than others, under the same circumstances.

There may be, in these cases, little or no perceptible sign of existing defects, and yet the predisposition may be found somewhat strong. In fact there are certain idiosyncrasies of constitution which are only developed to our observation when the subject actually suffers from attacks of disease to which they are predisposing causes, just as certain constitutions display an unusual susceptibility to the action of particular medicines, which can be known only by actual experiment. So long as the exciting causes, to the operation of which they are particularly susceptible, do not reach them, whether it be in the shape of epidemic influence, or articles of medicine taken into the system for particular purposes, their peculiar predisposition to be acted upon by them is not discovered, and cannot be known to exist. And this is probably the true explanation of the curious fact, that some individuals and families are so strongly predisposed to certain diseases which are supposed to be capable of affecting the system but once, as to be very perceptibly influenced by their exciting or epidemic causes whenever they happen to be exposed to them, even although they may have gained all the immunity afforded by a severer attack of the disease.

* I have often known individuals to be so constitutionally predisposed to

the exciting cause of yellow fever, measles, cholera, &c., that they always experienced decided symptoms of these diseases when prevailing epidemically. In regard to yellow fever, such is my own case. Having suffered a severe attack of the disease in early life, I might have expected the usual exemption from it subsequently, but upon every occasion of exposure to the epidemic influence in numerous instances since, I have never failed to contract the disease in a less violent form; and I have noticed the same thing in other persons. There are persons who are equally susceptible to the epidemic influence of other diseases, experiencing upon every exposure more or less of the distinctive symptoms of the disease. Probably it is more common with cholera than with other epidemic diseases, that persons experience more or less of its characteristic symptoms from every exposure to the epidemic influence, their predisposition subjecting them, indeed, to repeated attacks in the same epidemic visitation; and such persons are liable to suffer from the distinctive symptoms of the disease while residing where cholera has once prevailed as an epidemic, upon every attack of indigestion and diarrhœa, thus giving evidence that some portion of the epidemic cause remains after the epidemic itself has disappeared.

I am not sure there is any remedy for such constitutional and hereditary predisposition to certain diseases, excepting, perhaps, the general one of invigorating regimen with a view to elevate the standard of health. But there is some degree of security against fatal effects in a knowledge of the existence of such predisposition, that timely and efficient measures may be taken in the application of remedies. The susceptibility of the system to the action of the exciting cause of the disease, and to the action of remedies, is only to be learned by observation and experience in each individual case.

Dietetic influences are often predisposing causes of epidemic diseases, and especially of those which are prevalent and fatal to emigrants in hot climates, and of those, also, which are seated mainly in the digestive organs. It is well known that yellow fever epidemics in southern latitudes are most fatal among persons of northern birth; and that even the natives of hot climates, ordinarily exempt from the graver forms of this disease, may become almost equally susceptible to it by adopting to some extent northern habits of life. The negro race present the best illustrations of this truth. In Africa they suffer, in general, from only the milder grades of the disease; but those born in this country, and who have been fed from their youth up, on a plentiful supply of fat pork and corn bread by southern planters, are subject to the more violent and fatal grades of yellow and bilious fevers, of which diseases they die in considerable numbers. Few, indeed, are the cases of fever among those people which can be safely left, as in Africa, to the remedial powers of nature. Active and skilful medication must be resorted to if we wish to cure them, and the frightful mor-

tality which has occurred among them since their emancipation proves the want of it.

This greater predisposition to disease, especially those of a febrile character, is to be accounted for, mainly, by reference to diet. The natives of hot climates, and especially African negroes, live principally on vegetable food, which supplies the system with only a moderate amount of hydro-carbon; and on ripe and acescent fruits, which are not only deficient in this quality, but by their juices afford protection against the scorbutic diathesis which prevails so injuriously among northern immigrants. The common error was strikingly exemplified in 1821, when General Jackson took possession of Florida and marched a body of northern troops into Pensacola. These troops were fed on strong meat diet, with no other vegetable food than sour flour and musty beans. In a short time frightful havoc was made among them by scurvy, which seemed to defy all means of cure and prevention, until the happy thought was acted upon to supply the whole command plentifully with sour oranges and sugar, which proved at once, both curative and prophylactic, and the disease disappeared.

Natives of hot climates in general indulge sparingly in alcoholic drinks, giving preference to the milder kinds of wines, and making up for their want of stimulation, in some measure, by the use of capsicum; while immigrants from the north persevere in their habitual use of distilled liquors, and other hydro-carbonaceous materials so unsuited to a southern climate. So disqualifying are these northern dietetic customs to southern climates that the negroes who are returned to their native country have, equally with the white race, to undergo an acclimatizing process, with only a little less danger of fatal effects. In Liberia and Sierra Leone the mortality among coloured immigrants from America has been very considerable, but this mortality does not extend to recaptured Africans in the hands of slave traders, whose habits of life have not been changed by negro slavery in America.

The habitual use of capsicum in large quantities, so common to the natives of hot climates, and especially in Africa and Mexico, in both which countries nature provides this article in its greatest pungency, may afford some protection against fever, as is sometimes contended by those who use it; but, like other unnatural excitants, it has its evil effects. Hypertrophies and scirrhus indurations in the digestive organs, and especially in the stomach and duodenum, are its common effects, the dangerous character of which is none the less because of the tardy development of the diseased condition. This view is justified by several antopsic examinations which I have made of those who have died at the age of fifty to seventy years, hard scirrhus balls being found in connection with the stomach and bowels, and strictures of the pylorus and duodenum from indurated hypertrophy of the mucous and muscular tissues.

When epidemic influence tends to the production of fever in southern

latitudes, those immigrants from northern climates who have conformed for any length of time to the proper diet of southern races of men in regard to moderation in hydro-carbonaceous food, and the substitution of vegetables and fruits, are the most likely to escape the disease, or to suffer, if attacked, only its milder grade. Of course the danger of a fatal issue is proportionally lessened. But it must here be remarked that temperance in drinking, and especially the avoidance of distilled liquors, are of the utmost importance in guarding the system against all epidemic influences. The predisposing causes of epidemic diseases are many and various; but among them all none are more to be dreaded and deprecated than the habitual and excessive use of alcoholic drinks. I know of no exceptional disease, and if men wish to avoid and escape epidemics, it behooves them to abstain from stimulating beverages.

Predisposition to Asiatic cholera is always increased by those indulgences in diet and drink which are unusual, and which tend in any degree to impair the healthy tone and vigor of the digestive organs, and especially which interrupt or disorder the secretions of those organs. Physicians and sanitary boards have displayed ingenuity in constructing dietetic rules when this disease is prevailing as an epidemic, and the discrepancies and contradictions displayed are not only curious, but afford abundant evidence of the futility of attempting to enforce any such protective policy. In regard to this matter the maxim holds true, "What is food for one is poison for another." The only fact to be valued is, the danger of disordering the digestive system by the use of food known to be difficult of digestion, or the use of too large a quantity of digestible food, or by irregular and untimely meals, or any of those imprudences which tend to impair the tone of the stomach and bowels. Precisely the same is true in regard to the predisposing causes of diarrhœa, dysentery, and cholera morbus, except that in those cases the predisposing causes of epidemic cholera may become exciting causes of these and other diseases of the digestive organs, which are only occasional and not epidemic. Undue fatigue, sudden transitions of temperature, and want of proper rest and sleep, may also be added to the other predisposing causes affecting the digestive system, as may, also, with great propriety, all mental emotions acting upon the nervous system to depress it and impair its energy.

Vicious habits of life variously predispose to epidemic influences by disordering the healthy functions, and especially those of the brain and nervous system, upon which the exciting cause makes its impression. The physiologists tell us that vegetable and animal food in due proportions is best suited to the nourishment of the body, and to the preservation of health. Common experience confirms this, and teaches, also, that the proper beverages are those only which nature has provided without the assistance of art, namely, water and milk. Whatever is more than these is unnecessary, productive of more or less evil, and may be classed among

the vicious habits of life. The habitual use of opium, tobacco, and other narcotics, including all alcoholic beverages, has an undoubted tendency to cause derangement of nervous function, to vitiate the secretions, and to establish an abnormal condition, operating as a predisposing cause of all epidemic diseases. Long indulgence in such vicious habits prepares the system, like certain hereditary taints, for the operation of morbid causes, and of certain remedial agents, the precise character and extent of which can only be ascertained by observation and experiment, creating, in fact, an artificial idiosyncrasy, which, while such habits are continued, can neither be controlled nor cured.

Nothing is better established than that narcotic influences of every kind gradually wear away the healthy tone and vigor of the nervous system, producing either direct or indirect debility; and that their habitual use also impairs the healthful susceptibility of the brain to those normal influences necessary to the enjoyment of bodily and mental health. It is reasonable, therefore, to expect that persons who have by their vicious habits brought themselves to this condition, will be more predisposed than others to the operation of morbid causes, and all observation proves that such is the fact. To consider the influence of improper clothing, sudden transitions of temperature, sedentary occupations, confined and corrupted atmosphere, irregular and deficient sleep, and many other things which might properly be classed among the vicious habits of life, would be to enter upon the discussion of the whole science of hygiene; the object of which is to teach the great truth, that it is only by a close adherence to the laws of nature and Providence that the human system can be sustained in a state of health, and protected against the baleful influence of causes of disease. By the proper use of every faculty and function, without abusing them by artificial and unnatural means they are best preserved from debility and disorder, and the organs of the body with which they are connected, strengthened, and qualified to resist morbid influences. The laws of life impressed upon the human organism cannot be habitually violated, either by acts of commission or omission with impunity, and the neglect or perversion of a single function has its certain penalty in suffering and disease. There is, indeed, little reason to doubt that the great mortality from epidemic diseases is in great measure due to the influence of unnatural indulgences and excesses, habits of life which are unknown to any but the sufferers, and the deleterious effects of which upon the general health are often scarcely noticed even by themselves; so obscure and insidious are the operations of morbid causes, and so certain are the penalties visited upon those who habitually violate the laws of nature.

ART. III.—*Account of Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis, as it occurred in parts of Dubois, Spencer, and Perry Counties, Southern Indiana.* By M. KEMPF, M. D., of Fairmont, Ind.

DUBOIS, Spencer, and Perry counties, in Southern Indiana, are hilly, the soil is argillaceous, with sandstone and coal as the substrata. The land is well drained by numerous streamlets, and intersected by three small rivers emptying into the Ohio River. Here and there are tracts of swamp land—inundated in the rainy season, but generally dry in summer—well timbered, and yielding a rank vegetation.

Cerebro-spinal meningitis made its first appearance in Dubois County in the month of December, 1862, at Haysville, a little village situated on the White River. Preceding the disease, nothing remarkable was observed in either the weather or the prevailing type of disease. The winter was a mild one, not noted for extremes of temperature.

The disease had prevailed for three or four weeks in Harrison County, about forty or fifty miles southeast of Haysville, before it made its appearance in the latter place. That it travelled by contagion, or by any direct route, there was no evidence. The young and male sex were most liable to its attack. It seemed to be checked by mild weather, but reappeared upon the occurrence of a damp, chilly atmosphere.

On its first appearance, cerebro-spinal meningitis was very fatal, overwhelming the patient, as it were, by a single blow. I have known patients to die within two, three, or four hours from the beginning of the attack.

From what I have seen of the disease, I think it may properly be divided into cerebro-spinal asphyxia, cerebro-spinal inflammation, and cerebro-spinal irritation.

Cerebro-spinal asphyxia is generally ushered in with an alternation of chilliness and heat, violent pain in the head and back, pain in the extremities, vomiting, and diarrhoea of a bilious character. The patient presents an appearance as though he was deeply intoxicated. When roused, he will give a half-intelligent look and an incoherent answer. His eyes are dull, injected, watery, and the pupils dilated, or one contracted and the other dilated; the pupil may be round, elliptical, or irregular. Tongue cool and swollen; breath cool. Pulse irregular, feeble, and frequent, though sometimes it is almost natural, calm, regular, soft, and full whenever the system is sinking rapidly and the approach of death is imminent. The surface of the patient is mottled with purplish spots. Cramps of the extremities are common; sometimes there is jactitation of the whole body, but not of the violent character observed in cerebro-spinal inflammation.

CASE I. S., aged nineteen years, a stout male, of sanguine temperament; had enjoyed good health; was taken ill about 2 o'clock at night, March 13,

1863, with violent pain in the head, bilious vomiting, and diarrhœa, which was attributed to a dose of pills he had taken the previous evening. I was called to see the patient at 4 A. M., and found him with dull features of a purplish hue; eyes injected and rolling about in the socket, with a vacant expression; pupil contracting and dilating by turns—on the approach of light it would contract for a moment, then immediately dilate again; tongue and breath cool, and the former swollen and slightly coated; pulse feeble, frequent, and irregular; surface cool, and mottled with purplish spots, some as large as a split pea, others, again, as large as a fifty-cent piece. By strong pressure the spots would partly disappear. If the patient or one of his extremities was moved, he would exclaim as though in violent pain; strong pressure, especially on the extremities, produced the same result. There was no spasm or convulsion, but now and then slight twitchings of the extremities. There was stupor, with low, muttering delirium; the patient had all the appearance of being intoxicated. Sight and hearing both much impaired.

Treatment.—R. Eth. sulph. ʒss; terebinth. spir. ʒj; brandy ʒiv; syr. ʒv. M. A tablespoonful to be given every hour. R. Capsici. pulv., camph., āā ʒiss; calomel. ʒj. Ft. pulv. v, one every hour. Counter-irritation to spine; warmth to extremities. The patient died at 3 o'clock P. M. of the same day.

CASE II. H. B., a fine boy 7 years of age, left home at 8 o'clock in the morning to attend school, a half mile distant, and returned about 10 o'clock, complaining of violent pain in the head. As the child had been subject to ague, the parents attributed his symptoms to an attack of that disease; but as he soon became insensible, and his surface covered with purplish spots, I was requested to see him at 2 o'clock P. M. I found the child comatose; insensible to shaking or pinching of extremities; to all appearance blind and deaf; eyes injected and turned upwards, pupils dilated; pulse perfectly natural. This condition was found to be in every instance a very unfavourable symptom.

Treatment.—Injections of turpentine and assafœtida; cloths dipped in boiling water applied along the spine; cold douche to head. Death occurred the same evening.

CASE III. A. B., a stout lad 15 years of age, on his way to church, was attacked with violent headache, vomiting, and diarrhœa, shortly followed by severe cramps in extremities, and paroxysms of general convulsions. Pulse feeble, irregular; surface bluish, presenting a mottled appearance, cool, and bedewed with a clammy perspiration; delirium of a low, muttering character. The child sank into a comatose condition, and died three hours from the time when he was first taken. His brother, a boy aged 13 years, was taken sick in the same way, and died five hours after the attack.

CASE IV. F. B., a stout lad, was attacked about the same time and with the same symptoms as the above, and died six or seven hours afterwards. He was a cousin to the brothers of Case III.

Cerebro-spinal meningitis, the sthenic type of the disease, with evidence of inflammation of the meninges of the brain and spinal cord, generally commences with a peculiar nervous agitation, wandering pain of a rheumatic or neuralgic character, followed by a chill and by inflammatory

reaction; pain in the head, darting from temple to temple; pain along the spine and in the extremities, much aggravated by movement or pressure; acute sensibility of the surface, the least pressure or the slightest touch causing the patient to moan or scream; high vascular excitement. As the disease advances, the patient becomes more or less delirious, his countenance having a wild expression. He is often affected with cramps of the extremities, tetanic spasm, or hysteric convulsions. The eyes are injected, and intolerant of light; the pupils are generally contracted, though sometimes one is dilated and the other contracted, the edge of the pupil being round, oval, or notched; the pupil itself is either clear or opaque, with a milky or greenish effusion—this is generally, however, a symptom of the latter stage of the disease; there is defective vision, *muscæ volitantes*, or complete amaurosis. The sense of hearing is sometimes very acute, again very obtuse or totally lost. The stomach is generally irritable, with more or less vomiting of a bilious character. The bowels are mostly costive. Urine high coloured and scanty. In most of these cases herpetic eruptions appear about the mouth and nose. A prominent symptom, which has been considered by some writers as pathognomonic, is generally present, namely, spots or petechiæ of a scarlet colour, generally minute in size and few in number, though in some instances they cover the greater portion of the surface of the body. In the malignant type, the skin presented a maculated appearance, of a dull crimson or deep purple hue.

The duration of cerebro-spinal meningitis is from twenty-four hours to two or six days; the majority die between the latter periods, but now and then a case is protracted for several weeks or months. The patient, after becoming convalescent from an acute attack, and, to all appearance, out of danger, may have a slight exacerbation towards evening, slight pain in the head, cloudiness of intellect, and indistinct articulation. He may complain of dimness of vision, anomalous sights, or one eye may be perfect and the other nearly blind. He may have buzzing in the ears, hear unusual sounds, or the organ may be too sensitive or too obtuse. I have visited patients in whom the analogy between intermittent fever and the disease under consideration was so perfect that the most circumspect would be deceived.

CASE V. Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis.—March 24. Called to see A. R., a healthy girl 13 years of age, sanguineous temperament. She was taken sick about 8 o'clock in the morning, with vomiting, and pain in the head and spine. When I saw her, 2 o'clock P. M., I was struck with the close resemblance of the symptoms to those of hysteria; and if cerebro-spinal meningitis had not been then prevailing, I should not have felt the least alarm about the patient. She was throwing herself about the bed, two females trying to prevent her from injuring herself. Her head was drawn backwards. She attempted to pull her hair, or to scratch her face, or to bite her fingers, moaning and screaming as though she was in great agony. Now and then her whole frame quivered, as though she had received an

electrical shock. I inquired of the mother whether the girl was subject to such attacks; she assured me that she never had the like before. Examining the patient more closely, I found her eyes were wild and injected, the pupils contracted, but oscillating; countenance flushed; pulse full, frequent, and hard, and now intermitting. She did not pay the least attention to remonstrance, and the more the attendants attempted to guard her from injury, the more she would scream and rave. In pity to the poor girl, I put her, after much trouble, under the influence of chloroform, and kept her so for several hours. When the anæsthesia ceased, the patient was still delirious, but more manageable, and occasionally she gave an intelligent answer to a question put to her about her condition. The spasms had lost their tetanic character, and there was rather a twitching or jerking of the extremities, especially when touched or moved. The patient having had no passage from her bowels for some time, I succeeded in making her swallow a full dose of calomel, which was to be followed, in the course of seven hours, with infusion of senna with salts, and an enema of castor oil and turpentine, if needed.

25th, 9 A. M. Was agreeably surprised at the improved condition of the patient. She had become more calm; her bowels had been well acted upon; urine scanty and high coloured. There was still pain in the head and along the spine, much augmented by moving or pressure; eyes injected, and still very sensitive to light; noise was disagreeable to her; pulse full, frequent, hard, and regular; tongue coated with a thick yellow sordes. Ordered—R. Calomel. ℥j; ipecac. gr. vj. Divide into three powders, one to be given every three hours. R. Tinct. veratri gtt. iv; aquæ lauro-cerasi ʒj; syr. simp. ʒj. To be given every two hours until the pulse became reduced, or some constitutional effect ensued. Several small blisters along spine; cold applications to head. 3 P. M. Patient's condition much worse than in the morning; her symptoms much the same as on the previous day.

26th. The patient had again become more calm; her eyes partially closed, and little affected by light; her hearing was very imperfect; intellect dull, incoherent—uttering unintelligible words, or rather sounds, when loudly spoken to; pulse feeble, irregular; calomel defecation, very offensive and involuntary; spasmodic starting of the muscles; subsultus; gives no indication of any particular pain; appears to desire little drink or nourishment. Ordered the patient to have milk-punch, brandy, and chicken-broth. R. Quiniæ ℥j; camph. pulv. ʒiss; sacchar. alb. q. s. Divide into ten powders, one to be given every two hours.

27th. Patient comatose; insensible to light and noise; eyes covered with a film, and, when touched with a feather, there is but little indication of sensibility; pupils dilated, irregular, and of a greenish appearance; herpes around her mouth, which had already appeared on the day previous; sordes about teeth and lips; tongue dark, dry, and cracked; subsultus; stools and urine very offensive, and passed involuntarily.

28th. Patient's condition about the same as yesterday, with the exception that her head is drawn backward, and firmly fixed in this position. She died at 5 P. M. the same day. No *post-mortem* permitted.

CASE VI. B. K., a stout boy 17 years of age, sanguineous temperament, was attacked on the 2d of April with a violent chill, darting pain through the head, pain along the spine, and bilious vomiting. Visited the patient about twenty-four hours after he was first taken ill. His face was then flushed; some petechiæ of a bright colour; eyes injected, with a brilliant and wild look; pupil contracted, very sensitive to light; intellect wanting;

delirium—the patient would drive his horses, or command or coax the children to do their work, or rove about the field with his dog; much jactitation, but no real spasmodic or tetanic convulsions. He appeared to suffer much pain from any movement; pressure, especially on the extremities, gave much pain. Pulse full, throbbing, and quick; bowels costive; urine scanty and high coloured. Bled to about twenty ounces. *R.* Calomel. ℥j; jalapæ pulv. ℥iss. Divide into two powders, and give one every three hours; five hours after the second powder, senna and salts. After the patient was well purged, gave—*R.* Tinct. verat. virid. f℥j; aquæ lauro-cerasi ℥j; morph. sulph. gr. j; syr. limon. f℥iv. Dose, a teaspoonful every hour or two until it reduces the pulse, then use at longer intervals. Cold applications to head.

April 3. Patient well purged; stools dark and very offensive; incontinence of urine; intellect obtuse; low, muttering delirium; eyes watery, still injected, but much less brilliant than yesterday; strabismus of left eye; pupils oscillating; tongue covered with a thick dark-brown coat; herpes about nose and lips; pulse full and frequent; slight subsultus. The bleeding had done the patient harm. Discontinued sedative mixture, and gave—*R.* Quiniæ ℥j; camph. ℥ij; opii gr. iij; capsici ℥iss. Made into twelve powders, one every two hours. *R.* Chlorate of potassa ℥j; water Oj. To be taken during the day.

4th. The condition of the patient much the same as yesterday. Continue the powder, and in place of chlorate gave—*R.* Ammon. muriat. ℥j; aquæ ℥iv. Dose, a large tablespoonful every two hours. Brandy, milk-punch, and nourishing broths; blister to nape of the neck; innunction of Granville's lotion, with mercurial ointment, along spine; blister to extremities. Petechiæ larger, less numerous, and of a more purple colour.

5th. Patient comatose; subsultus; sordes about teeth and lips; tongue black, dry, and fissured. Death took place towards evening.

CASE VII. *Mrs. L. G.* was attacked with a severe chill, followed by intense headache, violent pain in the cervical region, also darting pain along spine; pain in the extremities, with slight cramps; mind flighty; face flushed; eyes injected, look anxious; light and noise painful; bowels costive, no vomiting; pulse full, strong, throbbing; tongue but slightly coated; no petechiæ as yet had made their appearance. *R.* Calomel ℥j; jalapæ ℥ij. Divide into three powders, and gave one every three hours; afterwards senna and salts. *R.* Morph. sulph. gr. ij; calomel gr. viij; sacchar. alb. ℥ij. Seven powders, one every two hours. Remained with the patient until some effect of the morphia evinced itself; and as it appeared to do good, it was continued. Cold applications to the head.

April 3. The patient has been well purged; looks more calm; complains less of her head and spine; face still somewhat flushed; less sensitive to light and noise; some twitching of muscles; sensation of extremities painfully acute upon pressure; circulation still excited; urine high coloured, but not scanty; some few petechiæ of a bright red over chest and forehead. Continue morphia powders, with the addition of five drops of veratrum viride, to be increased one drop every dose until it has the desired effect.

4th. Patient much improved since yesterday. Complaints of the effect of morphia and veratrum viride, which were directed to be given at longer intervals. Ordered the following: *R.* Quiniæ sulph. ℥ij; acid. sulph. aromat. ℥j; syr. limon. ℥j; aquæ font. ℥iij. Of which a large tablespoonful was given every two hours until cinchonism was produced, or earlier if any bad effect resulted.

5th. The patient is convalescent; she did not suffer a relapse. She took about thirty-five grains of quinia.

CASE VIII. On the 7th of April I was requested to see Miss C. P., a stout young lady 18 years of age, who was attacked with precisely the same symptoms as in the case of Mrs. G. The same treatment was pursued, and with the same happy result.

CASE IX. On the 5th of April, Mary —, a delicate girl, aged 13, was attacked with vomiting, pain in the head, and pain in the cervical region of the spine. Flushed face; eyes injected; sensitive to light and noise; bowels loose; pulse quick, hard, and with now and then an intermission; nervous tremors; delirium of hysterical character. Ordered the following: R. Calomel ℥j; morph. gr. j; sacchar. alb. ℥ij. Divide into seven powders, one to be given every three hours with a teaspoonful of the following mixture: R. Tinct. verat. virid. f℥ss; syr. limon. ℥ij; mucilag. acaciæ ℥j. A dose of castor oil to be given in the morning.

April 6. The patient somewhat better. Has had several calomel operations. Pain in head and spine much less. Has vomited several times. The veratrum viride has reduced the circulation very much; the fainting spells, of which the patient had several, were probably produced by the medicine. Continue same treatment, but medicine to be given at longer intervals. Cold applications to the head, and mustard to the nape of the neck. These were ordered yesterday, but they appeared to fret the patient, and were therefore discontinued. To-day she is more calm, and submits to their application.

7th. Patient still improving. Ordered—R. Quiniæ ℥j; acid. sulph. aromat. gtt. x; syr. limon. ℥ss; aquæ ℥ij. Dose, a tablespoonful every two hours. Discontinue the morphia and calomel powder and veratrum.

8th. She has taken all the quinia; cinchonized. No symptoms of the disease remained after the effects of the quinia had disappeared. She suffered no relapse.

CASE X. Mr. P. requested me to visit his son, a fine boy, aged 5 years, who had been taken sick towards morning, April 3, with a chill and vomiting; but as the child had suffered from ague, the parents were not much alarmed till the patient commenced to scream from the violence of the pain in the head; and when they were about to move him, he was taken with convulsions. I saw him at 2 P.M., and found him labouring under opisthotonos, with hands clenched, and occasional cramps of extremities. The intellect was abolished. Appears to suffer acute pain upon moving the extremities, or when hard pressure is made on them and along the spine. Eyelids partially closed; eyes injected, and rolling about the sockets; pupils contracted. Pulse frequent and throbbing. Bowels acted freely without medicine. No "spots" were visible. Put the patient in a hot bath; applied a cold douche to the head, which was continued for half an hour; when the symptoms somewhat abated, the patient was removed to bed. Cold application to head and blister to nape of neck, with the following enema: R. Ol. terebinth. ℥ss; tinct. opii ℥j; ol. ricini ℥iv; aquæ fervent. Oiss. One-third to be given every hour. When deglutition became practicable, one of the following powders: Morph. sulph. gr. j; calomel. ℥ss; sacchar. alb. ℥ij. Mix and divide into eight powders, one to be given every two hours. If an intermission should take place, a tablespoonful of the

following: R. Quiniae sulph. gr. xv; acid. tart. ℥ss; syr. simp., aquæ font., ℥iij. To be given every two hours.

April 4, 8 A.M. Patient's condition is much improved. Opisthotonos disappeared. No cramps of extremities, though an occasional twitch or jerk. Intellect somewhat restored; appeared to notice things, and now and then gave a rational answer to interrogations about his condition. Eyes injected; pupil contracted, oscillating on approach of light. Pulse 110 to 115. Skin moist. Petechiæ very plain, of a dull red. Three of the powders had been given. The injections remained but a short time with the patient. Ordered the powders to be continued, with the addition of two drops of veratrum viride, and increasing one drop every two hours.

5th. The child is doing pretty well this morning. Pulse 100, soft and calm. Intellect good; only slight flights of delirium. Still complains of pain on pressure of extremities and spine. Not much pain in the head. Eyes still somewhat injected; pupil prone to vacillate. Has had several calomel discharges. Micturated freely. Vomited several times green-looking "stuff," and, as the patient is much nauseated, ordered the veratrum viride to be continued. He had taken no quinia yet, which was now commenced with. A tablespoonful of the mixture I had left every two hours, with the morphia and calomel powders in the intervening hours.

6th. Doing well; parents highly delighted. I had, I confess, the same delusive hope of soon seeing their child well. He had taken about two-thirds of the quinia mixture, and appeared to be cinchonized; said he could not hear well, and had buzzing in the ears; it was, therefore, discontinued. Ordered light diet and close watching of child.

7th. Has suffered a relapse. Pulse frequent and feeble; eyes injected, watery, covered with a mucous film, pupils dilated; hearing obtuse; intellect blunted; jactitation; tongue dark-coloured, dry; teeth covered with sordes; herpes about nose and mouth; bowels acted freely; patient in a typhoid condition. Ordered milk-punch, brandy, ammon. murias; blister to nape of the neck and extremities.

8th. The patient sinking; subsultus; pulse very frequent and feeble; mouth and nose incrustated with herpes and sordes; one eye is dull and watery, of an almost natural colour; the other is of a greenish colour, caused by an effusion of serum or lymph; hearing abolished. Patient died about 9 P. M.

To recapitulate the treatment most in vogue for the cure of cerebro-spinal meningitis, I may state that bleeding was very unsuccessful in my hands. Dr. Huber, who has seen and treated a great number of cases, reports favourably of it in some cases. Opium and its preparations have proved the best remedies, provided the patient is seen early in the disease. A full dose of calomel (gr. x), with a full dose of morphia (gr. j), for an adult, and in proportion for children, followed in five to seven hours with senna and salts. If the bowels were well acted on, calomel and morphia powders—the calomel in small, the morphia in sedative doses—repeated every two hours, was a prescription I frequently gave, and, I think, with success in some cases. In conjunction with morphia and calomel powders, I gave veratrum viride; the latter does much good, if properly administered, by its sedative effect. Cold applications to the head, I think, had a good result. Of counter-irritation to the spine I cannot speak favourably.

I am confident that quinia is very proper in some cases. The intermittent character of the disease, the herpes about the mouth, and the "spots" or petechiæ, which appeared in the epidemic of intermittent fever of the summer and fall of 1865, would seem to indicate some kind of relation between the two diseases—cerebro-spinal meningitis and intermittent fever. Quinia, at a proper time and in proper sedative doses, is therefore a remedy upon which we should presume, *a priori*, that great reliance should be placed, as I think I have learned from experience. Dr. Huber thinks that it does harm; while Dr. Schüntermann, who has used the remedy largely, speaks highly of it. I have tried a great number of other remedies, but can say little in their praise. In the chronic form, ammon. murias and brandy, I think, have done more good in my hands than any other remedies.

In cerebro-spinal asphyxia I have generally failed by any plan of treatment to save my patients, and the other physicians with whom I have conversed about the epidemic do not claim any success. I think the alternation of warm water and ice-bags to the spine would be of service, and probably the inhalation of oxygen.

Of *cerebro-spinal irritation* I will only remark that, on the decline of the epidemic, a great number of individuals, especially adults, complained of headache, malaise, neuralgic pains in various parts of the body, and pain in the nape of the neck or other parts of the spine. The ailment readily yielded to morphia and quinia. Cerebro-spinal irritation very likely was a precursor to the graver forms; but as not much alarm was felt before the epidemic had made some ravages, the physician was not consulted in this minor form of the epidemic.

ART. IV.—*Contributions to Aural Surgery. On Catarrhal Inflammation of the Cavity of the Tympanum occurring in Young Persons.*
By D. B. ST. JOHN ROOSA, M. D., Clinical Lecturer on Aural Surgery and Ophthalmology in the University of the City of New York, late Aural Surgeon to the N. Y. Eye and Ear Infirmary.

As is well known, inflammatory affections of the ear are very common among young persons. An "earache" is one of the most frequent of the ailments of childhood. Besides the fearful pain which it involves, it may have consequences dangerous to the integrity of the organ affected. The mucous membrane of the tonsils and pharynx is probably the most common starting-point of these inflammations; from thence the passage along the Eustachian tube to the cavity of the tympanum is not only a very easy, but, as experience proves, an extremely frequent occurrence.

Thus, in the course of one of the exanthemata, acute catarrhal inflammation of the middle ear arises, which in weakly constitutions readily becomes purulent, and ulceration with perforation of the membrana tympani, one of Nature's conservative processes, takes place. It is not the purpose of the present article to speak of the cases which have thus been outlined, but of a variety of catarrhal inflammation of the middle ear, somewhat different from these, yet having many analogous points. They are inflammations occurring in young persons without any positive exciting cause, although such a provocation is not always wanting. They are cases which, with the means now at our hands, are peculiarly amenable to treatment, and furnish the most gratifying results. The subjective symptoms of the affection may be stated as follows: It is observed that the patient without perhaps suffering very often from pain in the ear, is very often somewhat hard of hearing, being so much so as not to hear ordinary conversation. This passes off without treatment, but the trouble recurs, the attacks become more frequent, and finally in the course of a few months or years, the patient settles down with a continued impairment of the hearing. The general health is not apt to be much impaired, although some defect in nutrition is generally found. Objectively the following symptoms are observed: The pharynx is found in a state of inflammation, little elevations like granulations are seen on its surface, the secretion is in excess. The tonsils may or may not be hypertrophied. The membrana tympani, instead of having its normal "neutral gray" colour, is of a pinkish hue, with an exceedingly brilliant appearance. The vessels are not generally to be distinctly traced on any part of it. The triangular light spot is either entirely absent, or is smaller than normal, indicating that the position of the drum is changed. It is apt to be the case that proper hygienic rules have not been observed in the management of the young patient, who has been allowed to eat and drink food improper for growing persons, for example, tea and coffee, pastry, &c., to the greater or less exclusion of simpler and more nutritious substances, and thus a capricious state of the appetite has been induced. In the case of boys, frequent and prolonged bathing, ducking the head under the water, is sometimes found to cause an attack of, or to increase the hardness of hearing. The hearing, as tested with the watch, is found very much impaired, and only conversation specially addressed to the patient, and this in a loud tone of voice, is heard.

The regulation of the diet of such patients, the wearing of flannel next the skin, the abstaining from any habits which may be recognized as predisposing to inflammation of delicate structures, building up of the system by a proper therapeutic course, such as the exhibition of cod-liver oil, ferri iodidi syrup., etc., with proper local attention to the mucous membrane of the pharynx, will undoubtedly in time, allow Nature to relieve these cases; but the impairment of hearing, which is the most striking and

troublesome symptom, will be the last one relieved. We have, however, the means at our hands, as was indicated above, in Politzer's method of rendering the Eustachian tube pervious, of instantly improving the hearing, thus removing the most embarrassing symptom, while we go on with the proper general treatment, curing the disease on which this symptom depends. The use of the Eustachian catheter will probably accomplish the same ends, but its employment, though not entirely impracticable, is very difficult in young persons. Politzer's method is now so fully known to the profession, that any description of it seems unnecessary; yet for the sake of completeness in this article, we may say that it consists essentially of blowing air into one nostril from a gutta-percha bag, the other nostril and the mouth being closed, the patient swallowing at the moment the air is blown.¹ It may be supposed that the impairment of the hearing in these cases is due to a plugging up of the faucial orifice of the Eustachian tube, and also of the calibre of the tube by mucus, which is suddenly expelled by the column of air driven in. Structural changes, that is, thickening of the mucous membrane, bands of adhesion such as obtain in old cases of chronic catarrhal inflammation of the middle ear, have not probably occurred. Indeed, the appearance of the membrana tympani, as it has been described, substantiates this view, there being generally no thickening of the layer of mucous membrane observed either on the periphery, or across its surface. If, however, such changes have occurred, the improvement to the hearing will be correspondingly less. The nature and treatment of this affection may perhaps be better illustrated by the recital of a few cases, than by any further remarks.

CASE I. Willie S., aged 11, St. Louis, April 28, 1865. Has been growing deaf for some months, is rather delicate. His appetite is extremely capricious, drinks tea and coffee in great excess. He cannot hear ordinary conversation. The left membrana tympani is of a pinkish hue, the right secretes a slight amount of pus, is however intact. The tonsils are somewhat enlarged. Hears an ordinary ticking watch (which should be heard from three to five feet) five inches on the right side. One inch on the left. Politzer's method is practised two or three times, when the hearing distance was doubled by the watch on the left side, and ordinary conversation was heard with some ease. He was seen every day or two until May 4th, when he returned home, hearing the watch more than two feet on the left side, and six inches on the right, and was not at all perceived to be deaf in conversation. The appropriate constitutional treatment was carried out, only nutritious diet was allowed, an astringent was applied to the right drum, and Politzer's method was practised every two days. This treatment was still carried on at his home by other hands, and the patient was heard from as being still further improved.

CASE II. F. S. B., aged 16, N. Y., September 1, 1865. Has been deaf at times for a number of years, and for the past summer persistently so.

¹ *Ide* Braithwaite, Part xlix. p. 178.

His general condition is fair, is well developed. The tonsils were so much hypertrophied as to impede respiration, but they were removed previous to his coming under my observation. The pharynx secretes excessively as well as the nasal mucous membrane. There are numerous granulations scattered over the pharynx. The drums are pinkish, brilliant in appearance. The light spot is elongated. The watch is heard about six inches from each auricle.

Politzer's method was practised three or four times when the hearing distance extended to sixteen inches on the right side, and ten on the left. A gargle containing iodine and brandy was ordered to be used twice a day; he was also to practice Politzer's method twice a week, in connection with the iodine inhaler. The patient continued to improve, and at the present writing, April 20, 1866, the treatment has been abandoned, the hearing power being nearly if not quite normal. The patient goes to school every day. He was seen by me for some weeks, once a week, while his father, who is a distinguished physician of this city, carried out the treatment at home, which consisted in the use of the gargle, inflating the middle ear by Politzer's method once in three or four days, with attention to the general health.

CASE III. Edgar S., aged 17, Conn., October 20, 1865. Since the patient was four or five years old he has had more or less trouble in hearing. A few years ago the ears discharged and pained at intervals. The general health is fair; he is tall, well developed except that he is pigeon breasted. Hearing distance with watch, right ear, one inch. Left, two inches. The right drum is sunken, and is quite white in colour; no light spot exists. The left drum is intensely reddened and sunken; the centre seems to be united to the wall of the cavity of the tympanum. After the use of Politzer's method in combination with a bulb containing a sponge saturated with tincture of iodine¹ a few times, the hearing distance on the left side was increased to eight inches, but it remained the same. He also heard and pronounced after the speaker words spoken eighteen feet off, while a few moments before he could only hear them six feet. A Politzer's apparatus was ordered to be used at home under the direction of his father twice a week for a month, a slight counter irritation to be kept up over the mastoid process, when he was to report himself.

Nov. 26. The patient again presented himself, having carried out the treatment as directed, and can now hear the watch on the right side three inches, on the left *twenty* inches and more. He hears conversation with ease. Patient was directed to desist from treatment. He has not been seen since.

CASE IV. Michael W., aged 13, at Eye and Ear Infirmary, November 2, 1865, a delicate, bright-looking boy. Whenever he has a cold (as his father says) "it falls to his ears, and he gets deaf." Right membrana tympani pink and sunken; left sunken, but of about normal colour; tonsils have been ulcerated; pharynx secreting excessively; hearing distance, right ear, four inches; left, three inches. He was seen twice a week until January 17, 1866; iodized air being used by Politzer's method at each visit; cod-liver oil and ferri iodidi syrup. were administered. He had occasional partial relapses, but was at the above date discharged cured. His hearing improved at the first use of the method very markedly.

¹ Amer. Journal Med. Sciences, Jan. 1866, p. 108.

CASE V. Girl aged 16, at Ear and Eye Clinic in University Medical College, March 28, 1866. Has not heard ordinary conversation for years, and has been very much embarrassed in swallowing and breathing on account of enlarged tonsils; general condition is fair; the voice is extremely nasal; only hears when addressed in a loud tone of voice; the watch is heard two inches on the right side, one inch on the left; membrana tympani present nothing striking in appearance, except that they are quite brilliant; the tonsils are excessively hypertrophied. The use of Politzer's method immediately improved the hearing somewhat, which improvement lasted according to the patient's statement about a day. When next seen the tonsils were excised with the forceps and scissors, a long outgrowth being dragged down from behind the soft palate on the right side, which must have pressed upon the orifice of the Eustachian tube, and then the iodized air was driven into the tube. The hearing distance became two feet on the right side, and about six inches on the left. An iodine gargle was ordered, with cod-liver oil, a half tablespoonful to be taken three times a day. The patient is now under treatment, and still, April 26, 1866, continues to improve, hearing very well, with no trouble in respiration. It is, perhaps, needless to narrate more cases, of which more quite as striking, both in private and public practice, could be presented.

Such cases as the above are perhaps those which above all others show the excellency of Politzer's method, and for which it is especially adapted. It is confidently asserted that its use in the treatment of this class of patients will render the progress of the case highly satisfactory, which under the old method could be hardly said to be the case. After the first use of the instrument the improvement which occurs will probably only last a day or two, but I have never known the hearing to become worse, and the repeated (say three times a week) practising of the method will render the improvement permanent. The method is only an adjuvant, which is a fact to be carefully borne in mind, and the necessary general treatment should never be lost sight of.

I was led to the attachment of the bulb or inhaler containing the tincture of iodine, to the simple apparatus of Politzer, from the need felt of introducing some substance into the cavity of the tympanum which should promote absorption in the mucons membrane of the tube and middle ear. This want is supplied by the introduction of the iodized air, and my experience serves to show that the combination produces a more powerful and permanent effect than is produced by the use of simple air.

ART. V.—*Observations in Clinical Surgery.* By JOHN ASHHURST, Jr., M. D., one of the Surgeons to the Episcopal Hospital.

BELIEVING that there is no class of surgical papers more practically useful than that which embraces reports of cases, I propose to place here on record the histories of several patients, who have been under my

immediate care at the Episcopal Hospital during the past year; and in my selection shall pay regard, not so much to the rarity or intrinsic interest of the cases, as to the bearing they may have, and the instruction they may convey upon certain practical points of almost daily recurrence.

I. Cases in which Acupressure has been employed as a Means of Controlling Hemorrhage.

CASE I. Amputation of forearm; acupressure by the third method of Prof. Simpson; recovery.—John Clouden, a factory hand, a native of this country, 19 years of age, was admitted September 2, 1865, having had his right hand seriously crushed and mangled by being caught in the picker of a cotton mill a short time previously. The laceration extended for some distance upon the back of the forearm. There was considerable shock, but not enough to forbid immediate amputation.

The patient having accordingly been brought under the influence of ether, the forearm was removed at its upper third by the ordinary circular operation. Five arteries were secured by acupressure, employed after the third method described by Prof. Simpson, viz., by passing an ordinary sewing needle (gilt to prevent corrosion) under the artery, and securing the vessel above the needle by a loop of passive iron wire, the needle being itself threaded with iron wire to permit its being withdrawn when desired, and the two wires being then brought out together and twisted beyond the line of incision. By this method, which is perhaps the most secure in which acupressure can be used, the artery is partially twisted upon itself, and secured between the needle and the half figure of 8 turn made around it by the wire loop.

Hemorrhage having been checked in this way, the edges of the incision were brought together by points of the interrupted suture, lead wire being employed, and the stump was dressed with a fomentation of pure laudanum, which I have always found the best and most comforting primary application to stumps as to almost all extensive wounds.

Two needles were removed on the third day, and the others on the fourth; it being found necessary on account of their obliquity to the line of incision to break up the adhesions which had formed. This disadvantage could have been obviated had it been foreseen, by slitting up the cuff of integument at one side of the stump, or by employing one or other of the different flap operations. Until after the removal of the needles the stump was greatly swelled, and the five sharp points and ten iron wires certainly produced, for the time being, more irritation than I have seen caused by silk ligatures. As soon, however, as the needles were removed the swelling rapidly decreased, and the wound of amputation as rapidly healed; a mere linear ulcer remaining on the twentieth day, when the man was made an out-patient and passed from my immediate care.

CASE II. Double amputation for railroad injury; acupressure in one stump and ligatures in the other.—Michael O'Donnell, a schoolboy, five years of age, was run over by a locomotive on the North Pennsylvania Railroad on the afternoon of September 29, 1865, and was received into the Episcopal Hospital about half an hour after the occurrence. When I saw him, about 8 o'clock in the evening, he had already reacted and was beginning again to go down; he was sleepy, and his mind partially affected by the whiskey which had been administered. His left leg was badly

crushed, the knee-joint opened, and the laceration extending to the middle of the thigh. The right ankle was crushed, the joint destroyed, and the soft parts torn nearly to the middle of the leg. The patient being etherized, amputation was performed through the upper third of the left thigh by the modified circular operation, to wit, with oval skin flaps and a circular division of the muscles. The femoral artery and vein were secured by one acupressure needle applied after Prof. Simpson's third method, and no other vessel required attention.

The right leg was then amputated at its middle by the ordinary circular method, two ligatures applied, and both stumps closed with lead sutures and dressed with laudanum fomentations.

Although the pulse had risen under the administration of ether, the patient did not fairly react, and in spite of vigorous stimulation, applied both without and within, died in about three hours.

CASE III. Double knee-joint amputation for railroad injury; acupressure by modifications of the third method of Simpson and of the Aberdeen method.—Patrick Dailey, an Irishman, 35 years of age, a labourer, was brought to the hospital on the evening of January 13, 1866, by a policeman who had found him lying in an intoxicated condition upon the track of the Germantown Passenger Railway, where he had been run over by a car about half an hour previously. He was cold and pulseless when admitted, but when I saw him, after midnight, had become quite warm, though his pulse was still very weak. He had sustained compound comminuted fractures of both bones of both legs, the laceration on the right side extending about two inches higher than on the left. There was considerable bloody oozing from the left leg.

Ether having been administered, and a tourniquet carefully applied to either thigh, amputation through the knee-joint was performed by the antero-posterior flap method, first upon the right and immediately afterwards on the left side. On account of the greater extent of laceration in the right leg, the flaps were necessarily somewhat scanty upon this side, and the patella and the condyles of the femur were accordingly removed, being allowed to remain on the left side where the flaps were abundantly long. Three vessels were secured by acupressure in either stump, by the modifications of the loop and twist methods described by Prof. Pirrie. (See No. of this Journal for October, 1865, p. 533) In these modifications long pins are substituted for the threaded needles of Prof. Simpson, with the advantages of easier introduction, easier withdrawal (the pin heads remaining without the wound), and the avoidance of a complicated system of wires projecting from the stump.

All hemorrhage having ceased, the stumps were closed and dressed in the same way as in the preceding case, and directions given for the care of the patient through the remainder of the night.

As in the preceding case, however, though this patient improved for a time, he subsequently sank, and died the next day, eight hours after the operation and twelve from the time of the accident.

CASE IV. Partial amputation of the hand for a factory accident; acupressure; chills and the formation of diffused abscesses of the forearm; secondary amputation above the elbow; acupressure; death on the third day from secondary hemorrhage.—Wm. McMulligan, an Irishman, 50 years of age, a factory-hand, was admitted February 22, 1866, having

had his right hand injured that morning in the machinery of the factory where he worked. I saw him two hours after his admission, and found it necessary to remove the thumb with its metacarpal bone, the metacarpal bone of the forefinger, with the trapezium and trapezoid. Five acupressure needles were employed to arrest the hemorrhage, three by the Aberdeen or twist method, which I prefer when it can be used, and two by the third method of Prof. Simpson, or that with the metallic loop.

The edges of the wound were then approximated with the lead suture, a laudanum fomentation applied, and the arm placed at rest upon an appropriate splint. There was considerable oozing from the wound during the next twenty-four hours, but not, perhaps, more than should have been expected from the nature and extent of the incisions. All the needles were removed after forty-eight hours without any difficulty and without the slightest bleeding. The flaps sloughed, the arm became much inflamed, vesications formed over the wrist, and finally large abscesses upon the ulnar side of the forearm, opening the wrist-joint, laying bare the lower half of the ulna, and extending to and around the elbow. A slough had also formed from pressure over the internal condyle of the humerus. The patient's constitution was feeble, his appearance indicating at least ten years greater age than he confessed, and the disturbance of his general health was commensurate with the unfortunate progress of his local affection. Decided rigors, several times repeated, followed by febrile reaction and profuse sweating, a furred tongue, and disordered bowels, with gradual emaciation, proclaimed but too surely that nature would not be able to support the burden that was thrown upon her.

On the 15th of March, therefore, three weeks from his entrance into the hospital, the original wound having now assumed a healthy appearance, and the destructive action in the forearm having evidently reached its limit, amputation was performed immediately above the elbow, a single flap, principally composed of integument, being obtained from the anterior and outer surface of the forearm.

The brachial artery was secured by a long pin applied by the twist or Aberdeen method, to which a wire loop was afterwards added for additional security; thus combining the two methods especially recommended by Prof. Pirrie. Six other vessels were secured by threaded needles; three by the twist method, and three by the ordinary loop method as previously described.

The stump was then dressed in the usual way, and the patient replaced in his bed. During the next two days he became exceedingly exhausted, so as to require very liberal stimulation.

After 48 hours I dressed the stump, which looked well, and removed the needles from five of the smaller arteries. During the whole of this day the patient improved rapidly, until half-past nine in the evening, when a sudden gush of hemorrhage took place, and before the house surgeon could reach him he expired. The amount of blood lost was estimated at not less than a pint. Dissection of the stump showed that the flap was adherent to the face of the stump throughout, except at the position of the brachial artery, where was a loose clot of recent formation. The pin and loop by which the artery was compressed were undisturbed from their situation as when first applied. The artery when dissected out presented no ulceration above or around the seat of acupressure. It contained no clot, or at most but a filamentous rudiment of a clot.

CASE V. *Excision of a scirrhus breast; acupressure; recovery.*—E. R., a widow, 64 years of age, was admitted to the Episcopal Hospital, February 13th, 1866, for the removal of a scirrhus of the right breast. The following history of her case previous to admission is taken from notes made at the bedside of the patient by Dr. H. M. Howe, the house surgeon,

"She has had no children; she says that both her father and mother were healthy, and she does not know of any of her ancestors having had cancer. She first noticed her present trouble about four years ago; it began as a small tumour just below the right mamma, and for some time remained nearly constant in size, though slowly increasing and encroaching upon the mammary gland. Having once attacked the gland, it grew with great rapidity, and has enlarged more within the past three months than during all the time of its previous existence. About four months ago she put herself under the care of an "Indian herb doctor," who by his applications caused the tumour to ulcerate. She has enjoyed good health hitherto, sleeps well, and has a tolerably good appetite, and is in every respect in a suitable condition for an operation."

The day after her admission, the patient being etherized, I proceeded to the removal of the tumour in the usual way, by elliptic incisions embracing the nipple and the ulcerated surface. The scirrhus mass was found to have very deep adhesions, involving the pectoral muscle and subjacent tissues, and in removing all the diseased structure the cartilages of several ribs were exposed to view.

Four vessels were secured by acupressure needles, applied by the Aberdeen or "twist" method, and the edges of the wound approximated by lead sutures and supported by broad strips of adhesive plaster. A compress of dry lint and charpie, and an appropriate bandage completed the dressing.

Forty-eight hours afterwards the needles were removed, and the wound found to have united for about half its length by the "first intention." At one point where the tension of the flaps had been greatest, the wound was red and inflamed. A small slough subsequently formed at this place, its formation being accompanied by considerable fever and delirium. This slough separated on the sixth day, and from that time her progress towards recovery was uninterrupted. She was discharged, *cured*, April 13th, 1866, having been in hospital fifty-nine days.

Remarks.—The above five cases are all in which I have so far employed acupressure; although I attempted its use in a case of excision of the shaft of the radius, reported in another part of this paper, in which the bleeding tissues were so dense that the small needles, used by the second or third methods of Simpson, could not be forced through them, while the vessels which bled were so numerous as to forbid the employment of the large pins used in Simpson's first method or in Prof. Pirrie's modifications. In that case I applied eleven silk ligatures without having any reason to regret their use.

It will be observed that I have not in any case employed the "natural wound-lute" suggested by Prof. Simpson as an accompaniment to acupressure, or in other words, that I have not left stumps or wounds uncovered and exposed to the air. Several years ago I had the opportunity of seeing this mode of treatment thoroughly tried, and it resulted in so many

inflamed wounds and sloughing stumps, that I have never been disposed to employ it in my own practice. Nor have I allowed stumps to remain open until the cessation of all serous oozing, for the reason, that the flaps or lips of a wound become extremely sensitive a short time after an operation, and I therefore think it better to complete the entire dressing before the patient has recovered from the state of anæsthesia into which he has been plunged. I honestly believe that I have seen as much suffering caused by the introduction of sutures a few hours after the effect of an anæsthetic has passed off, as would have been produced had the amputation been performed in the first instance without anæsthesia having been induced.

With regard to acupressure itself, I have no hesitation in saying that I consider it a very valuable addition to our means of controlling hemorrhage. With a little practice it can be applied, especially by the Aberdeen or "twist" method, more quickly than the ligature, and presents the great advantage that the surgeon can use it without an assistant. Hence it would be well for every medical man to carry a few acupressure pins in his pocket case, as he may be called upon to arrest hemorrhage where no competent assistant can be obtained. In a hospital, however, or where the surgeon has all the appliances he may need, I do not, I must confess, see that acupressure presents any advantage over deligation. I have frequently ligated large veins without any evil consequences ensuing, and I have never known any harm to result even when it was supposed that the ligature might have included some nervous filaments. I have lost one case of amputation (reported above) from secondary hemorrhage after acupressure, and I have lost but one from hemorrhage after the use of the ligature. I have never seen in my own practice, or in that of others, absolute primary union of a stump after either deligation or acupressure; but union by adhesion I expect in every case of amputation, where the flaps are healthy and of sufficient length. I have never seen any evil which could be fairly attributed to the employment of ligatures, while I have seen undue irritation and swelling temporarily produced by the use of acupressure.

In fact, I am disposed to think that those gentlemen who praise acupressure in such glowing terms attribute, as is apt to be done with any novelty, the good result of their cases too much to acupressure alone, when they should rather place it to the credit of their own surgical skill and the good nursing and other favourable circumstances which their patients have enjoyed. Before I began the use of acupressure, one of my professional friends, who was its ardent advocate, told me with an air of triumph that he had then in his care a patient with amputation of the thigh, who, thanks to acupressure, had been able to sit up on the *nineteenth* day: I admitted that this was a good result, but mentioned at the same time that I was attending a patient with amputated thigh who, though I had used the clumsy method of deligation, had been able to sit up on the *eighteenth* day.

II. *Four Cases of Fractured Skull treated at the Episcopal Hospital during the Autumn of 1865.*

CASE I. *Fracture at base of skull; death on fourth day; autopsy.* [From Dr. Bodine's notes].—Joseph K. Alderfer, 25 years of age, unmarried, a returned soldier, and a native of Pennsylvania, was admitted on Thursday, August 31st, 1865, at about ten o'clock in the morning. He stated that he had fallen an hour or two previously from a loaded wagon which he was driving, and which was overturned at the time of his fall. On examination there was found a great deal of ecchymosis of the left orbit. Blood was flowing from his nose and mouth, and a large quantity had been swallowed and was afterwards vomited. He complained of pain in his head, and in his left leg, which presented a fracture in the upper part of the fibula. His pulse was sixty-four, his respiration somewhat laboured, and his right pupil slightly contracted. He was restless, but rational.

His leg was wrapped in pillows, and ice applied to his head. He was ordered a teacupful of milk every four hours. The next day he complained much of headache, was very restless, and slightly delirious; pulse 68.

Sept. 2d. In the morning he was rational again, but still very restless; pulse 72. In the evening his pulse rose to 112, with great heat of surface; respirations 32 in the minute; very restless and delirious, though not noisy; pupils of both eyes contracted.

3d, 4 A. M. Skin very hot; pulse 120; respirations stertorous. *8.30 A. M.*, pulse 130; respirations 12 in the minute. Died at *9.30 A. M.* At the *autopsy* the membranes of the brain were found very much congested, and contained about four fluidounces of reddened serum. There was also slight congestion of the brain and lateral ventricles. A fracture was found at the base of the skull arising in the left greater wing of the sphenoid bone, passing through the olivary process and right greater wing of the sphenoid, and ending in the petrous portion of the right temporal bone. There was also found a comminuted fracture of the upper end of the left fibula.

CASE II. *Fracture at base of skull, compound fracture of both jaws; recovery.* [From Dr. Bodine's notes].—Gottlieb Jehle, a German, 21 years of age, and by occupation a gardener, was admitted to the Episcopal Hospital on Sept. 8, 1865, at about half past four in the morning, having both his upper and lower jaw broken by a kick from a horse, received the previous evening. He had been stunned by the blow, and had been carried into a house where he lay insensible for about four hours; he then, it was stated, got up, walked out of the house, came back, and relapsed into unconsciousness. He was then brought to the hospital, where he remained in a state of insensibility until about half past eight in the morning. The incisor teeth and the corresponding alveolar process of the upper jaw had been carried away by the injury, and the lower jaw was broken into several fragments. He was unable to lie down in bed; he swallowed with difficulty, and his respiration was somewhat laboured.

The history of his case prior to admission was not obtained till afterwards, and, though he seemed dull and heavy, his state did not excite any suspicion of a more serious injury than had at first been recognized. On the night of September 11th, however, he fell from his sitting posture in bed to the floor, and when raised was found to be in a state of complete stupor. At my visit the next day I found that he could not be roused; his breathing was stertorous, his pulse full and slow, and his head flushed

and hot. He had complete hemiplegia of the left side. He was ordered an opening enema; to have ice to the head, and to be put on milk diet. R.—Hydr. chlor. mit. gr. $\frac{1}{4}$, opii gr. $\frac{1}{6}$, every third hour.

On the two following days the paralysis began to pass off; his mental faculties were now decidedly impaired.

Sept. 15. Complete ptosis on the left side; this also gradually passed off with his paralysis, and, more slowly, the impairment of his mental condition.

The pills of calomel and opium were stopped on September 19th, and the iodide of potassium substituted in ten grain doses thrice daily. His convalescence may be considered to have fairly begun from this time, and he was discharged, cured, November 3, 1865, having been in the hospital fifty-six days.

An intercurrent attack of facial erysipelas was treated by alcoholic stimulants and the local application of cotton wool.

This patient reported himself at the hospital on February 22, 1866, fat and apparently hearty. He had, however, still slight dizziness, and his vision on the right side of a vertical plane was totally absent. His jaw, which had been treated by means of a "Barton's bandage," was firmly united, and with much less deformity than could have been anticipated.

I have elsewhere expressed the opinion that there was no absolutely pathognomonic symptom of fracture at the base of the skull, and that the diagnosis could not be made certain during life; yet, though the symptoms in this case might possibly have been produced by cerebral injury without fracture, I think the balance of probability leans strongly in favour of the existence of the latter lesion.

CASE III. *Compound depressed fracture of frontal bone, with exposure of anterior lobe of brain; recovery.* [From notes of Dr. J. L. Bodine.]—James Massey, an Englishman, 39 years of age, married, a saw-grinder by occupation, was admitted to the Episcopal Hospital at about 11½ A. M., on September 15, 1865, suffering from a compound depressed fracture of the frontal bone, which had been produced that morning by the bursting of a grindstone at a neighbouring saw-factory. He had been sitting before the grindstone on an iron-bound "horse," by a blow from the end of which his injury was caused. I happened to be in the hospital at the time of his admission, and found him to be entirely unconscious, and with profoundly stertorous respiration. The external wound was branched, forming two sides of an irregular triangle, each branch being about an inch and a half in extent. The fracture was comminuted and depressed, involving the entire thickness of the skull. Two loose pieces of bone were removed, and the depressed portion gently elevated; this procedure instantly diminished the stertor of his respiration, and the patient turned over on his side. The cerebral mass could be seen pulsating through the wound, and the membranes were lacerated, a small quantity of brain matter exuding through the opening in the skull. The soft parts were adjusted with adhesive strips, and ice applied to his head; he was ordered to be kept very quiet, and to be put upon milk diet. His pulse beat fifty-two strokes in the minute; his eyelids could not be opened, so that the condition of his pupils could not be ascertained.

Sept. 16. He was pretty quiet during the preceding night; he was now conscious and able to recognize the members of his family. The

wound was dressed; he had been kept very quiet and had had no pain. R.—Hydr. chlor. mit. gr. $\frac{1}{4}$, opii gr. $\frac{1}{6}$, every third hour.

17th. His condition was very little changed; pulse 56; he was somewhat more restless, and in the latter part of the day his hands had to be tied to prevent him from injuring himself.

18th. He was able to open his eyes, and no difference in the pupils was to be seen. The external wound doing well.

22d. Pills of calomel and opium stopped, and ten grains of iodide of potassium given three times a day. During his whole treatment this patient's pulse never rose above sixty. From this time he gradually convalesced, showing, however, decided dulness of mind, and complaining of a feeling of weight in the head, but never having been unconscious since the first day. He was discharged, cured, November 26, 1865, having been under treatment seventy-two days.

This patient has reported himself at intervals since his discharge, and is apparently in good health, though indisposed to much exertion, and suffering from frequent headaches and what he calls a feeling of heaviness in his head.

CASE IV. *Extensive fracture of vault of skull, with laceration of the base of the brain from counterstroke; autopsy.* [From Dr. E. W. Watson's notes.]—Michael Sullivan, aged fifty, an Irishman, and by occupation a labourer, was admitted into the Episcopal Hospital on the morning of October 2d, 1865, having fallen a short time previously from the third story window of a dwelling-house. When first seen, he was found to be totally insensible; his respiration was stertorous, and the left side of his scalp contused and puffy; there was marked orbital ecchymosis of the left side, and hemorrhage from the left ear; pulse about 100, and very weak, and his skin bathed in a cold sweat; his lower jaw was dropped, and there was internal strabismus on the right side.

Ice was applied to the head, and stimulants were administered freely, with some little improvement in the pulse, which became stronger and less frequent, while his skin grew warmer and his breathing more natural. The patient at times screamed violently, and was with difficulty kept in bed. The next day he had partially reacted, and was ordered calomel and opium, with milk diet, as in the previous cases. Reaction, however, did not continue, and on the morning of October 4th the pulse became again weak and fluttering, and the breathing slow and laboured. The patient vomited his medicines and food; his skin became cold and clammy, and death ensued about 10 A. M. of that day.

An autopsy was made five hours after death, with the following results: His scalp was infiltrated with blood, and, when raised, displayed a fracture involving the orbital plate of the frontal bone, with the temporal and sphenoid bones on the left side. The membranes were congested at the seat of fracture, and there was considerable laceration and contusion at the base of the brain on the *right* side, directly opposite the seat of fracture, and apparently produced by the *contre-coup* or counterstroke of the older writers.

Remarks.—The course of treatment pursued in the above instances is that which I am in the habit of adopting in cases of fractured skull. I have not yet seen any reason to modify the views I have elsewhere expressed with regard to trephining, and cannot sum up my opinions as to the treat-

ment of this most serious class of injuries better than by repeating the concluding sentences of a previous paper upon this subject:—

“There is a close analogy, though often forgotten, between trephining and the resection of long bones. In compound fractures of the extremities we extract loose fragments, restore the others as nearly as possible to their proper places (‘setting’ the fracture), and then trust the case to nature. Just so in compound fracture of the skull, it seems to me, we should content ourselves with removing the detached portions of bone, and restoring the rest, if possible, by the elevator or otherwise, to their proper level, and then withhold our hands; conducting the after-treatment upon physiological and rational principles.”—*Am. Jour. Med. Sciences*, vol. 1. p. 390.

Of course, in a simple fracture I should consider trephining even more improper than if the fracture were compound. The last case recorded above may serve to show how useless the operation would have proved if it had been employed, for the really important injury, and that of which the patient died, was at the base of the brain, at the opposite side from that of fracture. In fact, in the autopsies which I have made or seen in cases of fractured skull, now no inconsiderable number, I cannot recall one in which it appeared that the use of the trephine could have done other than hasten the fatal issue.

✱ III. Case of Surgical Fever.

Subperiosteal resection of four inches of the shaft of the radius for an old gunshot wound. Surgical fever; recovery with improved use of arm. [From Dr. Bodine's notes.]—John Carrol, an Irishman, 45 years of age, and unmarried, was admitted to the Episcopal Hospital on the first day of July, 1865, suffering from an old gunshot wound of the forearm, received in one of the battles before Richmond, July 28th, 1864. He had received from the same ball a flesh wound on the side of the trunk. The bones of the forearm (the right) were pronounced to be fractured by the surgeon who examined him on the field, and he was sent to a general hospital for treatment. A piece of bone about an inch in length had been removed by exfoliation before he applied for admission to the Episcopal Hospital.

When he came under my care in the month of August, 1865, his arm presented two openings, one on either side, and both communicating with dead bone; the wrist-joint was stiffened, and the fingers almost immovably extended. The bones of the forearm appeared very much thickened, and the interosseous space obliterated. He had no power of pronation and supination, the arm being fixed in a prone position.

On Friday, Sept. 1st, the patient being under the influence of ether, I made an incision upon the *ulnar* side of the forearm, laying bare the *radius*, which had united after being fractured, in such a way as to completely overlap the *ulna*. Having stripped off the periosteum on either side, I removed with strong cutting forceps about four inches of the shaft of the radius, which was very much thickened; the *ulna* was found quite healthy. After breaking one or two acupressure needles in the attempt to pass them through the dense structures involved, eleven ligatures were applied, principally to vessels in the separated periosteum. The wound of incision was then

closed with lead sutures, dressed with lint saturated with laudanum, and the arm confined on an appropriate splint.

The patient slept after the operation, and his pulse in four hours was found to be ninety-six to the minute. He was not able to pass water, and for some days it was drawn off by a catheter at regular intervals. He was ordered to be kept very quiet and to have milk diet.

Sept. 2. Pulse 96; considerable heat of skin; tongue furred. R.—Morph. acetat. gr. j; spt. æth. nitr. fʒij; sacch. alb. ʒj; aquæ camph., liq. ammon. acetat., aa fʒiv. M. Sig. A tablespoonful every three hours. To have an enema in the evening.

3d. Pulse 100. The enema not having operated well he was ordered a tablespoonful of castor oil.

4th. Sweating profusely; pulse 96; tongue furred. Ordered a wine-glassful of milk punch every four hours; diaphoretic mixture to be stopped.

5th. Pulse 96; he has vomited several times since my last visit. R.—Quin. sulph. ʒj, ac. sulph. arom. fʒj, aquæ aurant. flor. fʒiv. M. Sig. A teaspoonful four times daily.

The wound was now dressed with proof spirit. During the ensuing days his tongue became more dry, and his pulse more feeble; and on *Sept. 9th* he was ordered ten drops of the oil of turpentine every three hours. On *Sept. 10th* he had a chill, followed by high fever and sweating; to get his quinia mixture more frequently, so as to have twelve grains in the twenty-four hours, instead of eight, as before.

11th. Nine of the ligatures came away; he was ordered the following every hour, as he loathed the idea of meals, and was constantly nauseated. Whiskey fʒij, lime-water fʒij, milk fʒij. He had a chill about 5 P. M. *

13th. The rest of the ligatures came away; there was some tenderness about the wrist-joint, and considerable redness up the arm. Pulse 92; tongue cleaning; nausea continued with occasional vomiting. R.—Acid. sulph. dil. fʒj, tinct. aurant. fʒj, aquæ fʒvij. M. Sig. Tablespoonful thrice daily; to get sixteen grains of quinia in the twenty-four hours, and a double quantity of whiskey with his lime-water and milk.

14th. Pulse 98; had a chill in the afternoon. To have twenty grains of quinia in the twenty-four hours.

15th. Another chill in the afternoon; pulse 108.

16th. Pulse 96; there were distinct red lines extending up the arm; erysipelas had attacked the hand; the tongue had become more dry. The arm to be enveloped in a poultice; a fomentation of permanganate of potassa (ʒj—Oj) applied to the wound; the splint removed, and the arm merely supported on a pillow.

17th. Pulse 100; blisters had formed in the hand; tongue dry; had a chill in the night. To get twenty-four grains of quinia in the twenty-four hours.

18th. Pulse 100; three abscesses appeared on the back of the hand; there was a universal redness of the arm above the wound.

19th. Appearance somewhat improved; arm less inflamed.

20th. One abscess had opened of itself, and the two others were evacuated by the knife. The tongue was very dry and rough in the centre, but beginning to moisten at the edges; pulse 108, and feeble; respiration embarrassed; countenance anxious.

23d. Three abscesses which had formed in the upper arm were evacuated. Tongue still dry; pulse 100. The weather being extremely warm, it was

ordered that his bed should be carried out to the veranda attached to the ward for a few hours every day.

The daily notes of this case stop here; but, suffice it to say, that from this point his condition assumed a more favourable aspect. His wound put on a healthy appearance, his appetite returned, and he slowly, but surely, entered upon convalescence. He was discharged, cured, Dec. 13, 1865, 104 days after the date of resection, with an arm which, though of course weakened somewhat by the loss of bone, and stiff from long disuse, was yet of decidedly more value to him than before the operation.

Remarks.—The above history presents a case of “surgical fever,” in a severe form, brought to a successful termination by what appears to me the most rational mode of treatment. I do not believe that any specific has yet been found, or is likely soon to be found, for this affection in any of its varieties. The drug which seemed most useful in this case was quinia, and I have always found advantage in its use with patients who suffered from repeated rigors, even if there were no suspicion of any malarious taint. It should be given in sufficiently large doses to impress decidedly the nervous system, and in my experience acts best in solution with some preparation of sulphuric acid. But more important than any drug is the supplying of easily assimilated food in small quantities at short intervals, and I know of nothing better than the combination of milk and lime-water with brandy or whiskey in teacupful doses every hour day and night.

Although the periosteum was entirely preserved in this case, there was no apparent reproduction of bone up to the date of the patient's discharge; yet the subperiosteal character of the operation subserved two useful ends: first, by avoiding the division of any muscular or tendinous attachments, and of any vessels or nerves of considerable size, and, secondly, by affording a much thicker and firmer cicatrix than could in any other way have been obtained.

IV. *Cases of Fracture of the Upper Half of the Humerus treated without Splints.*

CASE I. Robert Gillies, a Scotchman, 75 years of age, and by occupation a weaver, was admitted to the Episcopal Hospital on the 12th of August, 1865, suffering from a somewhat oblique fracture about the junction of the upper and middle thirds of the humerus. There was considerable contusion of the soft parts, and the skin had the loose inelastic feel often observed in old persons, and which so certainly indicates a liability to excoriation. The fracture was treated in the following manner: reduction having been effected by manual extension in a vertical line (the patient standing) a folded towel was placed in the axilla and a roller bandage was smoothly applied to the limb from below upwards, so as to reach a little above the line of fracture; the forearm being then flexed upon the arm at an angle of about 45 degrees, and the hand being in a position midway between pronation and supination, the limb was laid upon the anterior surface of the chest, so that the fingers reached to the clavicle of the opposite side; the arm was then secured in its position by the bandage known as the third roller of Desault (as used by that surgeon for fractured clavicle), aided by additional turns of the roller binding the arm firmly to the chest. In

applying the Desault's bandage, care was exercised merely to support the elbow without forcing it upwards. The patient was then allowed to be about the ward, the dressing being renewed every six or seven days, according as any portion became disarranged. After ten days or two weeks, a small pasteboard cap was applied over the seat of fracture. He was discharged, *cured*, October 10th, having been in the hospital fifty-nine days.

CASE II. William Patten, aged 74, a plasterer, was admitted to the Hospital on August 13th, the next day to that of the former patient's entrance, with a fracture of the surgical neck of the humerus, produced in a similar manner, but of the opposite side of the body. The treatment adopted was the same, and the patient was discharged, *cured*, on the same day, October 10th, having been under treatment fifty-eight days.

CASE III. George Weller, a school boy, 9 years of age, was admitted March 5th, 1866, with a fracture of the surgical neck of the right humerus, caused by a fall (as in the previous cases), and accompanied with enormous tumefaction and ecchymosis. The treatment adopted was the same as in the other cases, except that the preliminary spiral bandage and the pasteboard cap were omitted, and that the dressing was rendered additionally secure by the use of a few broad strips of adhesive plaster.

In this case the dressing had to be renewed but once, the cure being completed, and all bandages removed after eighteen days.

Remarks.—This method of treating fractures in the upper part of the humerus was taught me by that most excellent surgeon, Dr. Geo. W. Norris, formerly Senior Surgeon to the Pennsylvania Hospital. I find it but slightly noticed, or more frequently omitted altogether, in standard works of the day, and must, therefore, conclude that, although far from new, it is not known or not used by the large majority of practitioners. And yet, it seems to me that an unprejudiced trial is all that is requisite to show its superiority over the complicated apparatus of long and short splints and pads now generally employed. I have repeatedly in this way given immediate comfort to patients whom I have found suffering and complaining greatly of the combined inflictions of a fractured humerus and the clumsy appliances generally used in its treatment. The advantages which I would claim for the practice here described are, an equally good result to that usually obtained, occupying as short or even a shorter time for treatment, much greater comfort to the patient, and much less trouble to the surgeon. The degree of flexion of the forearm prevents that anterior angular displacement which so often occurs with the use of the rectangular splint, while it is much easier for the patient than the position of extreme extension suggested by Hamilton. In the use of splints, excoriation can only be prevented by frequent renewal of the dressing, while the bandages here recommended, if carefully and properly applied, may be allowed to remain a week without injury to the most delicate skin.

V. *Two Cases of Acute Epididymitis treated by Smith's Method of Puncturing the Testis.*

CASE I. John Morey, 35 years of age, married, a seaman, entered the

Episcopal Hospital March 23, 1865, suffering from acute inflammation of the epididymis (gonorrhœal in its origin) of but short duration. I found him in bed, with his knees drawn up and his thighs separated, his very attitude indicating the pain he experienced. Having ascertained the position of the most tender point, I plunged into it a sharp, narrow, straight bistoury to the distance of about one inch, withdrawing it so as to leave an incision of about a fourth of an inch in length. A few drops of blood followed the withdrawal of the knife, and when the patient had recovered from the surprise into which my unexpected procedure had thrown him, he declared that he felt already greatly relieved by the operation. He was ordered to stay in bed for a few days, and to apply a simple evaporating lotion. The next day he was entirely free from pain, and the swollen organ quickly resumed its normal dimensions, the patient being discharged, *cured*, April 7th, having been in hospital fifteen days.

CASE II. Wm. Davis, seaman, 19 years of age, was admitted February 7, 1866, suffering from gonorrhœa, and consequent acute epididymitis. He had had the part leeches before entering the hospital, with but slight relief. The testis was punctured as in the preceding case, with the same speedy disappearance of pain; and, contrary to the usually received opinion, the urethral discharge diminished as the tumefaction of the testis disappeared. The epididymitis was entirely gone in ten days, and the patient was discharged *cured* of both affections at the end of three weeks.

Remarks.—No complication of gonorrhœa is more dreaded both by patient and surgeon than “swelled testicle,” orchitis, or, as it should more correctly be termed, inflammation of the epididymis. And this is not surprising in view of the heroic treatment, leeching, purging, strapping, etc., usually adopted. My attention was first directed to the very simple and satisfactory practice here recommended, by a paper by Mr. Henry Smith, of King’s College Hospital. (See this Journal October, 1864, p. 535.) The great relief from pain is, I imagine, due to the diminished tension upon the inflamed testis by the division of its dense fibrous envelope. The principle is the same as that upon which we act in incising painful felons, before the occurrence of suppuration, and in the treatment of painful nodes, by subcutaneous or other division.

VI. *Report of the Dissection of a Case of Lumbar Abscess, in which Death was directly caused by Profuse Arterial Hemorrhage.*

The patient was a young man who had been affected with the disease for a considerable time. When he came under my care, in January, 1866, there was a small fistulous opening on the anterior surface of the left thigh, about two inches below Poupart’s ligament. From this was discharged a large amount of extremely fetid pus, probably not less than a pint in the twenty-four hours. He stated that by pressure on the left lumbar region the flow from this orifice could be increased. The patient became gradually weaker, until the morning of March 20, 1866, when profuse arterial bleeding took place from the opening referred to. Although pressure by means of a clamp tourniquet was immediately employed, he rapidly sank, and died at 10.40 A. M., about two and a half hours after the occurrence of the hemorrhage.

Dissection showed the existence of an immense abscess, arising from the

neighbourhood of the fourth lumbar vertebra, which was carious, and passing downwards, both before and behind the spinal column, laying bare the sacro-iliac symphysis, the promontory of the sacrum, and the sacro-iliac and sacro-ischiatic notches, distending the gluteal region, and passing behind and to the outside of the great trochanter and the neck of the thigh bone to terminate in the fistulous track in the front part of the thigh. Injection of the internal iliac artery showed the hemorrhage to have come from an ulceration of a branch of the left gluteal—probably one of the lateral sacral arteries of that side.

VII. *Cases of Urethral Rupture, or Stricture.*

CASE I. *Ruptured urethra.*—Clarence Masterson, an Irishman, 50 years of age, married, and by occupation a labourer, was admitted to the Episcopal Hospital on the morning of August 28, 1865, having been injured by falling astride of a joist in a new building where he was at work. He had lost a good deal of blood, and was still bleeding freely from the urethra when I saw him, a few minutes after his admission; he had not, however, made any attempt to urinate since his fall. I immediately proceeded to the introduction of a full-sized catheter, which I fortunately succeeded in passing with but little resistance, and without inflicting much pain upon the patient. The catheter was then secured in the bladder, thus preventing any further hemorrhage, and an evaporating lotion applied to the already swollen scrotum and perineum. The catheter was retained in the bladder for four or five days, not a single unfavourable symptom having been manifested, and the patient was discharged, *cured*, on September 6th, having been under treatment but nine days.

CASE II. *Supposed impermeable stricture of the urethra; cure by dilatation.*—Wm. J. Claghorn, a merchant, 45 years of age, was admitted to the Episcopal Hospital November 27, 1865, suffering from stricture of traumatic origin and of several years' duration. He suffered also from phimosis, of which he was relieved by an operation, previously to coming under my care, in the month of January, 1866. He had never had an instrument introduced into his bladder (though repeated attempts had been made to pass a catheter), and his suffering and discomfort were so great that he was willing to submit to any operation for his relief. On the 9th or 10th of January, the patient being thoroughly etherized, after several trials I finally succeeded in passing a small metallic bougie, which having been allowed to remain for a few minutes, was easily replaced by a larger one. By continuing this procedure I was at last enabled to introduce a full-sized catheter, which was then secured in the bladder.

As every previous attempt at catheterization had been followed by severe rigors and general constitutional disturbance, I was agreeably disappointed the next day to find my patient quite easy, and greatly delighted with the results of my manipulation. After a few days the catheter was removed, being introduced at stated intervals to evacuate his bladder. Upon one occasion, however, in attempting to pass water without the instrument, he suddenly felt something give way (as he expressed it), and then had a sensation as of urine flowing, though none escaped from the urethra. The house surgeon, Dr. H. M. Howe, very properly ordered him to bed, and at once introduced a catheter which was allowed to remain. When I saw him the next day, he complained of great tenderness of the hypogastrium,

lay with his knees drawn up, and in fact presented the usual symptoms of acute localized peritonitis.

Under appropriate treatment this rather alarming complication disappeared, and the patient, having been taught to use the catheter himself, and instructed to pass it from time to time, so as to prevent the recurrence of his trouble, left the hospital in good health and spirits, and able to pass a full stream of water without the slightest pain or inconvenience, on the 16th of February, eighty-one days from his entrance into the hospital, but less than six weeks from the date when an instrument first entered his bladder.

CASE III. Traumatic stricture complicated with perineal fistula; treatment by external division.—Edward Langley, an Englishman, thirty years of age, was admitted to the surgical ward of the Episcopal Hospital, March 19, 1866, suffering from a stricture of the urethra of rather more than three years' standing, together with a perineal fistula, which had existed about six months. His disease, as in the case of Masterson above reported, had originated from his falling astride of a joist in a new building. He attributed the abscess which had resulted in the perineal fistula to rough handling in the introduction of instruments. Since the existence of the fistula, he stated that it had been found impossible to get a catheter fairly into the bladder.

At a preliminary examination, the day of his admission, I found the urethra excessively irritable, and a slight stricture anterior to the fistula, in addition to the more serious one behind. He passed his urine in dribblets three times in an hour, and the act of urinating was accompanied with great pain. Nearly all his urine escaped through the fistula. His general health had already begun to suffer, and he was anxious to obtain relief in any way that should be suggested.

His urine was examined by the house-surgeon Dr. H. M. Howe, and found to contain phosphates, urates, albumen, and epithelial casts, with a small amount of pus, probably from the fistula, which was inflamed and suppurating.

On the twenty-first of March the patient was thoroughly etherized, when I found that I could get an instrument through the anterior stricture, but that it could not be passed through the principal obstruction, situated at the junction of the spongy and membranous portions of the urethra, without using more force than either myself or my colleagues deemed advisable. I therefore caused the patient to be brought into the usual lithotomy position, and introduced a grooved staff well into the grasp of the stricture, then confiding the staff to my colleague, Dr. Forbes, who held it firmly in the median line of the patient's body. A few strokes with a sharp bistoury sufficed to open the urethra, exposing the staff, and thus dividing the anterior portion of the stricture. Then taking the staff in my right hand, and assisting it with the forefinger of my left, I succeeded in rocking it without any difficulty into the bladder. A single stroke of the knife now divided the remainder of the stricture, and the operation was completed. A grooved director was passed from the wound into the bladder, serving after the removal of the staff to guide the introduction of a medium sized silver catheter, which was then secured in its place, and the patient restored to bed. When the effects of the anæsthetic were passing off, a full dose of morphia was administered.

The next day the patient was easy, with the exception of slight abdomi-

nal cramps which soon disappeared, and on the third day a No. 10 gum catheter was substituted for the smaller metallic instrument at first used.

On the eighth day he was allowed to pass water without an instrument, but urine still escaping through the wound, the catheter was replaced. The patient was entirely free from suffering, and declared that he had not felt so well for years. At this date (April 23d) he is able to pass water in a full stream *per vias naturales*, the perineal wound being almost entirely healed. He has gained flesh and colour, and his urethra admits a full-sized instrument without difficulty and without the infliction of pain.

Remarks.—These three cases are presented as aptly illustrating some most important points in the treatment of urethral injuries.

The happy result in the first case is to be attributed entirely to the fact that no attempt had been made to pass water until after the introduction of the catheter. When such an attempt is made after rupture of the urethra, urinary extravasation is almost sure to occur, and will produce the most serious if not fatal consequences. Hence in such a case the surgeon's first thought should be to get an instrument into the bladder, and if found impossible in the ordinary way, it would be better to lay the urethra freely open by incision in the perineum, than to run any risk by waiting for the action of warm baths, fomentations, or anodynes. A most instructive case of ruptured urethra is narrated by Mr. Fletcher, of Manchester, in the *Association Medical Journal* for Sept. 21, 1855, where, although the patient was seen within fifteen minutes from the time he was hurt, urine had already been passed, extravasation had taken place, and in spite of the most careful treatment, death ensued on the seventh day.¹

The second case exemplifies what I think is without doubt the best mode of treating stricture, whether inflammatory or traumatic, where such treatment is possible. I have known death follow forced catheterization, and the most serious constitutional disturbance attend rapid urethral dilatation. But the more or less gradual dilatation by the employment of bougies of various sizes is so simple, so safe, and, withal, so satisfactory, that it seems hard to understand why any other treatment should be desired.

What was the cause of the intercurrent peritonitis in this case, I am unable to say. The patient's own description of his sensations would have inclined me to suppose that rupture and slight extravasation had taken place; but his rapid recovery, and subsequent freedom from unfavourable symptoms, would appear to render it more probable that the serous covering of the bladder alone was affected, by transmitted irritation from that organ.

The third case above reported was one in which I believe that even had an instrument reached the bladder, cure by dilatation would have been im-

¹ The necessity for promptly laying the urethra open by an incision in the perineum, in such cases as above, is most clearly demonstrated in an important paper by the editor of this Journal, in the number for February, 1837 (Vol. XIX.), to which the attention of the reader is respectfully invited.

possible. The urethra was so sensitive, and the stricture and surrounding tissues so dense and cartilaginous in structure, that I believe no treatment but that adopted could have been productive of lasting benefit.

I cannot better end these observations than by quoting some of the conclusions stated by Mr. Bryant, in his paper in the fourth volume of Guy's Hospital Reports, 3d series, pp. 79-80.

"In cases of organic stricture when the passage of a catheter is possible and not difficult; where it does not produce either any injurious or painful constitutional or local disturbance, and where, after dilatation of the stricture, an occasional passage only of the instrument is required to maintain an open channel, no other surgical means can be called for."

But "cases of stricture do occur occasionally, which are so exquisitely sensitive, and in which the passage of a catheter, however skilfully performed, is followed by such severe constitutional and local disturbance, as to produce more harm than good; and others, which are relieved by means of a catheter, and are even fully dilated, but which have a tendency to contract again immediately upon the omission of the treatment; in such cases the operation of 'external division' is most valuable."

225 S. SIXTH STREET, PHILADELPHIA, April, 1856.

ART. VI.—*Twelve Cases of Gunshot Injuries of the Head.* By W. P. MOON, M. D., formerly Executive Officer of Mower U. S. A. Hospital, Philadelphia, Pa.

In reporting the following cases of gunshot injuries of the head, I wish to contribute my mite to the vast amount of material which has been collected as one of the results of the great struggle through which we have just passed.

Some of them will demonstrate, I trust, that the opinion so emphatically indorsed by most of the highest authorities is well founded; that surgical interference, even by the use of the trephine, in fractures of the cranium, are not only judicious, but imperatively demanded in some cases, and that an excision of the bones of the head is not so uniformly dangerous as some have supposed. Several other cases, equally as interesting, and some of them very satisfactory cures, came under our observation, but we failed to get notes of them.

One case I remember being under our care for a few days after the patient had recovered, with a good physical constitution but shattered mind, where a musket ball had passed through the brain. We were unable to obtain a very reliable account from him, but a history of his case came with him, which left no doubt as to the injury. I failed to save a copy and history of this, one of the most intensely interesting cases under our observation.

CASE I. D. B., private Co E, 100th Penna. Vols, 33 years of age, an American, was admitted to Mower U. S. A. Hospital, July 19, 1864, for what had the appearance of a slight scalp wound over the left temporal region, said to have been received June 17th, at Petersburg, Va. The morning following his admission, while going the rounds in visiting newly entered patients, I noticed this man, and found him in the corridor, outside of his ward. He had a peculiar gaze, and could not give a ready and intelligent account of the time and circumstances of injury. There was hesitancy in his replies, and, at times, a want of comprehension when spoken to. The wound had taken on no unhealthy action externally, but upon examination it was found to be more serious than a superficial observation might indicate. There was found to be fracture at the central portion and superior border of temporal ridge of the left parietal bone.

As there appeared, as yet, to be no serious lesion or indications for interference, the patient was put to bed with strict injunctions that he should be kept there, and closely watched for the development of head symptoms. Alterative doses of calomel were given, light diet, absence of all excitement, and cold water dressings to the wound, which was carried out under the careful management of Dr. Hanley, in whose ward the patient belonged.

July 29. Patient became unconscious, to which of late there had been a growing tendency, with decided indications of compression; pupils dilated; respiration laboured; pulse slow and soft, with tendency to coma. It was with difficulty he could be made to comprehend, and his answers were very unsatisfactory and incoherent.

Upon consultation with Dr. Agnew, consulting surgeon to that part of the house, it was decided to trephine, which was done on the following morning. A crucial incision was made at the seat of injury, and upon exposure of the cranium and removal of a section of the external table, the inner was found depressed, and resting firmly against the membranes, but had not penetrated them. Upon removing the portions of inner fracture, a small abscess was found in process of formation, outside of the membranes, at the point of depression. The parts were adjusted, and the patient allowed to come from under the influence of the anæsthetic, when his entire consciousness and intelligence returned *on the instant*. Cold water dressings were continued, and absolute recumbence with the head elevated, and light diet.

31st. Patient quite feeble, with slow, soft pulse; bowels loose. Slightly tonic and anodyne treatment advised.

Aug. 1. Much improvement in every respect; wound healing kindly, and patient bright and cheerful, with diarrhœa checked, and appetite returning.

From this time the case progressed favourably, and proved to be one of those cases which tend to convince us that a timely interference unmistakably tends to save life. No untoward symptom was developed; and in the course of two weeks the patient was allowed to go about the ward. An occasional pain in the left side of the head was complained of for the first few weeks after he got out, and was exposed to the heat of the sun; but even this passed away as convalescence became more fully established.

Sept. 22. He was considered sufficiently well to be discharged, and go home.

CASE II. J. L., private Co. — 9th N. Y. Indpt. Bat., æt. 24, American, was admitted to "Mower," June 29, 1864, for gunshot fracture of right side

of frontal bone, caused by a piece of shell striking the forehead half an inch above the superciliary ridge. The fracture extended through the frontal bone into the orbital plate in the region of the orbital notch. The shell was supposed to have made a glancing blow, and no portion of it to have entered the head. Wound received at Spottsylvania, Va., May 12, 1864. Patient, a large muscular man, was knocked insensible, and was carried off the field.

July 1. Head carefully examined, and as the case seemed to be progressing favourably, with necrosis of the fractured portions going on, no interference was deemed necessary, but rest, quiet, and all avoidance of excitement, light diet, with a light cerate dressing to the wound, were enjoined; the case to be carefully watched, which was done by Dr. Lapsley, under whose care this man was at the time. General health very good; faculties bright, and pulse quite natural. Wound in healthy condition.

26th. Nearly a month after admission, patient had become in a convalescent condition, and had been doing light duty in the ward, the wound remaining open, and discharging a small amount of *bone* pus, both above and below the superciliary ridge. The case had been examined from time to time, but no bone entirely detached had been discovered. About this time the man had got a pass, and while out indulged in a drunken bout. The day following, head symptoms began to be developed, with indications of inflammation of the brain; restlessness, with pain in the head at the seat of injury, loss of appetite, pulse variable, pupils dilated, and not readily susceptible. In a day or two followed a tendency to lassitude, stupor, with mind wandering. The face and orbital region began to present an inflamed and tumefied appearance. Necrosis was still in progress, but no detached portions were yet detected. It was determined upon consultation to remove that portion of bone which was deprived of pericranium, and sloughing, as the patient's health was being compromised by the existing inflammation and symptoms of compression.

Assisted by Dr. Morton and other gentlemen of the medical staff, the operation was performed by making a curvilinear flap sufficient to expose the bone to the extent of two inches at the point of injury. It was unnecessary to use the trephine, as both tables were found fractured to such an amount that the portions could be removed by means of bone forceps and an elevator. After removing a fragment of the external plate, an inch square, from the superciliary region, and two or three small pieces at the supra-orbital notch, it was discovered that several fragments of small size of the inner table were imbedded in the membranes above the frontal sinns. While these were being removed, the vessels of the brain being much engorged by the struggles of the man when anæsthesia was being induced, *a drachm and a half or two drachms of cerebral substance* escaped from the wound, fairly gushing out. It had the appearance and consistence too of healthy tissue but lately inflamed, as if real suppurative inflammation had not imparted its own character and consistence to it. There was a lesion evidently. The portions of inner table removed were entirely detached, and no force was required or used to get them away. After closing the wound and applying cold water dressings to the head, the patient was kept very quiet in bed, with nourishing but bland diet ordered, and the case carefully and anxiously watched. We anticipated trouble, and confess our hopes for a successful issue were not very bright.

On the day following we found our patient improving, with his symptoms of compression rapidly subsiding. He was becoming rational, quiet,

and hopeful, with a better pulse. In a few days he began to get so much better that he persisted in thinking himself nearly well. In two weeks he was able to be about the ward. The upper wound remained open for some months, and some small fragments of bone were removed, but the opening in the orbital plate soon closed. There was no return of cerebral symptoms, except temporary headache after any undue excitement or indiscretion.

This case remained under our observation until the spring of 1865, and up to that time there had been no return of inflammation. Even the heat of the sun did not affect him as much as many in whom we have seen only a contused wound of the head.

In these cases, and the one which follows, we cannot resist the conviction that by timely interference by removal of the cause of compression, viz., spicula of bone pressing upon the brain, immediate relief was afforded, and, in all probability, life saved.

CASE III. G. R. L., private Co. M, 6th Mich. Cav., American, 25 years of age, entered "Mower" Sept. 21, for gunshot fracture of the occipital bone, received at Front Royal, August 16, 1864. Wound supposed to have been made by a musket-ball which struck the skull one inch to the right of the occipital protuberance, producing a fracture without any evidence of depression of the external table. The bone was in no way detached so as to be removed. A month or more had elapsed since the injury was received, the wound was doing well except the tendency of the fractured portion to slough, and as there had been no cerebral disturbance, so far as we could learn, the case seemed to be doing well. I noticed, however, in my examination of the man, that, though his general health was not much impaired, his mind was somewhat affected. This case was also under the care of Dr. Lapsley.

Oct. 18. Febrile symptoms, following a chill, set in succeeded by nausea, headache, with slow pulse. The day following a tendency to stupor and listlessness came on. The pain in the back part of the head had been extreme until this tendency to stupor set in.

20th. It was deemed advisable to remove a section of bone at the point of fracture, which was done by raising a circular flap of the scalp. There was a sufficient solution of the continuity of the external table to enable us to remove a portion $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch by $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch with the elevator and a pair of strong forceps. The vitreous table was found to be fractured an inch or more in diameter, the central portion of the fragments resting upon the membranes. Upon removing these fragments there was, as yet, only an excessive degree of congestion of the membranes and vessels, except at the point of contact where the tissues were beginning to break down. No abscess had yet fully formed. Wound closed and water dressings used. In a few hours after the operation the patient expressed himself as greatly relieved, nausea ceased, headache left him, and in a few days his entire consciousness returned. It was some days before all the febrile symptoms disappeared. The inflammatory symptoms were combated upon general principles. The case progressed favourably without any drawbacks, so as to be about the ward in two weeks.

Nov. 11. Went home on an election furlough, and returned in twenty days, still improving. He was finally transferred to his own State, with every prospect of complete recovery.

Anæsthetic used in this case, chloroform, which was generally administered in this hospital.

CASE IV. H. A., private Co. L, 2d N. Y. Rifles, 34 years of age, was admitted to "Mower" Hospital July 16th, 1864, for gunshot wound of scalp received at Petersburg, Va., July 8th. Minie-ball struck the head at the vertex, denuding the skull of the pericranium in its track, and causing two slight fissures of the external table of the frontal bone. This case was under the care of Dr. Fell, to whom we are indebted for the notes.

July 24. Patient had a severe attack of acute pleuritis, by which he was much debilitated, and on the 26th this was still complicated by symptoms of hepatitis, when he was found suffering great distress with short respirations, quick pulse, breathing laboured, conjunctiva and skin tinged with yellow, tongue dry and coated. Complaints of pain in the region of the liver. Was given hyd. chlor. mite gr. iij, ext. colocynth. co. gr. vj in three doses during the day. Emplast. canth. 4 by 8 to side and chest. Syr. scillæ, liq. morph. sulph., and vin. antimon. equal parts, a teaspoonful every three or four hours. Stimulants and tonics every four hours.

28th. Very much jaundiced, and sinking rapidly. At 9½ P. M., patient died.

Post-mortem revealed an unlooked for condition in the brain. There was no fracture of the cranium except the slight fissures of the external table, in which were imbedded small portions of lead. Upon removing the calvaria, an abscess was found directly under the point of injury containing half an ounce of dark green offensive pus. This was over the longitudinal sinus. No great amount of congestion or lesion of the brain was evident, but the dura mater was considerably thickened at this point.

The liver presented no signs of either acute or chronic inflammation, being of a pale and quite natural appearance. The jaundice must have arisen from some temporary biliary derangement. In the pleural cavity there was a pint of serum in each side with a number of attachments of the pleura. There had been inflammation of the lower lobe of right lung.

The symptoms of compression, if present, had been so masked by the pleuritic and hepatic indications that our attention had been withdrawn in a measure from the injury to the head, and we were somewhat surprised to find an abscess of such size in the cranial cavity without more prominent symptoms existing.

CASE V. O. B., private Co. B, 6th N. H. Vols., single, 18 years of age, German, received gunshot fracture of left temporal and parietal bones, at Petersburg, Va., July 19th, 1864. When admitted to "Mower" Hospital, July 26th, a fungous growth or hernia cerebri of the size of a pigeon's egg was protruding through what appeared to be an aperture in the cranium made by a large trephine. We were unable to learn from the patient at what time or under what circumstances he had been operated upon, nor anything reliable respecting his case. He seemed to have his entire senses, was cheerful, had a good appetite, and his general health had not yet become impaired. No constitutional signs of compression were developed. He was treated by damp compresses of patent lint, wet with lime water, bound as firmly as consistent upon the growth to repress, if not return it. Absolute quiet in recumbency, light diet, no stimulants.

August 3. Herina increasing and taking on a vascular condition. An abscess in the brain substance suspected, although as yet the patient's general

condition is little changed. Complains of no pain. *There is very little sensation produced by contact with the tumour.* Pupils natural, consciousness seems nearly perfect; sleeps quietly and natural; pulse 70 and full. The protruding mass is the size of a pullet's egg. It was examined to-day by Dr. Morton, who incised it, hoping to reduce it by so doing. By the incision one of the small branches of the cerebral artery was divided, which bled freely for some time.

7th. There is little perceptible change in the patient except that he begins to be more feeble. Appetite failing.

12th. Has more appetite to-day; seems quite as well as usual; and talks coherently *only when spoken to*, showing a disposition to require arousing to direct his attention.

20th. The growth steadily increasing and health beginning to be compromised, the propriety of excising the mass or of removing it by strangulation had been decided upon. Dr. Agnew being present, it was decided to pass a ligature around each half of the body, which I did by passing a double threaded curved needle below the cranial tables inclosing each half of the neck of the tumour. After gently tightening the ligatures, we were enabled to shave off the excrescence, without any hemorrhage, down to a level with the external table. The ligatures were then tied and left to remove the remaining portion. At the time of the operation the growth was the size of an ordinary orange. The patient exhibited little sense of suffering during the operation, but there seemed to him to be a sense of relief to that side of the head after it. No anæsthetic was used. Moderate pressure was now applied by means of a compress saturated with lime-water, firmly bound on.

21st. Little change.

22d. Patient, though rational, begins to fail in strength; pulse more soft and compressible; appetite failing, with a disposition to listlessness.

25th. Incoherency with a commencing comatose tendency are manifest, while the growth disposes to reappear.

26th. Patient rapidly sinking. Loss of motion and sensation of *right* side; respiration laboured.

27th. Breathing stertorous; pupils widely dilated; has no control over the sphincters.

28th. Died at 3 o'clock A. M.

Post-mortem revealed a large abscess from two and a half to three inches in diameter in the left hemisphere, with softening of much of the surrounding tissue. All the vessels of the brain were considerably congested. A large trephine had been employed to remove the cranial fracture at the seat of injury. No fracture was found beyond the margin of the trephined groove.

CASE VI. J. E., private Co. C, 71st Pennsylvania Vols., American, single, entered St. Joseph's U. S. A. Hospital, Philadelphia, Oct. 25, 1862, for gunshot wound of right temporal region received at battle of Antietam, Sept. 17, 1862.

A musket ball struck the superior border of right zygoma at the central portion and passed in, apparently, to the side of the head. A small portion of zygoma was splintered off. The man was knocked insensible by the blow, and when he returned to consciousness found himself in the field hospital with his head dressed. He was said to have bled profusely. In a few days he came to Philadelphia, without leave, and put himself under the

care of a physician. Not recovering so soon as he expected, and fearing unaccounted absence from his company would cause him trouble, he obtained permission to report to the hospital for treatment.

When admitted he was suffering from severe pain in the affected side of the head, indistinct vision, with a general malaise and tendency to incoherency in his replies to questions. Upon examination of the wound, a loose substance was found in the temporal region, which, upon being removed, proved to be a round ball, smoothly divided into two portions. The smaller, about one-third, was imbedded in the temporal muscle, the remaining two-thirds resting against the temporal bone. There was no fracture of the bone, the force of the blow having been spent upon the zygoma. The bullet was as smoothly divided as if it had been cut by a knife. The patient was confined to bed with head slightly elevated; cold-water dressings applied, and a mercurial purge administered. The more serious symptoms subsided in a few days, and the patient was able to be around the grounds. For some weeks he was subject to dizziness, temporary and partial loss of vision, after any indiscretion in diet or from any undue excitement. By careful attention in these respects he rapidly regained his general health, the wound soon healed, and he was returned to his regiment considered nearly well November 22, and fit for duty.

In the two cases which follow, I have never been able to divest myself of the conviction, that an earlier resort to surgical interference would have given a far greater chance of success, and shall continue to regret we did not operate sooner than we did.

CASE VII. J. S., Corporal, Maine Volunteers, American, single. Entered "Mower" Hospital, September 26, 1864, for gunshot wound of head received at Cedar Creek, Virginia, September 19. Minie ball struck left side of frontal bone two inches above the superciliary ridge, causing, to all appearances, only a scalp wound with a trifling denuding of the pericranium. Cold water dressings were continued, and the usual precautions enjoined with every prospect of a rapid convalescence. Water dressings had been applied.

In the course of the next ten days, however, premonitory head symptoms, in a violent and unmistakable manner, were exhibited, calling for active treatment. After trying medicinal remedies for a short time, it became evident that an operation was demanded to afford any hopes of benefit. About the twelfth day after admission, and the third or fourth after serious cerebral symptoms presented, the patient becoming rapidly comatose, it was determined to trephine. Assisted by Dr. Cummins, to whom I am indebted for a report of the case, and Dr. Morton, I performed the operation by the use of a medium trephine, after making a crucial incision in the scalp. The only visible injury to the external table was the slightest possible indentation made as if the ball had made a glancing shot. Neither fissure nor fracture was perceptible. Upon removing a section of this plate the vitreous was found fractured and split off into scales to the extent of an inch and a half, some of them being driven down upon the membranes. Six or seven spiculæ were removed. An abscess had formed in the left hemisphere at the point of injury, and was pointing, though as yet no lesion had taken place. The membranes, so far as could be observed, were much congested.

For three or four days there was some improvement in the patient. His

pulse became fuller and more regular; there was less of the coma; he was more rational and comfortable; the general cerebral symptoms subsiding. But suppurative and inflammatory action had gone too far to be arrested, and on the fifth day after the operation he began to sink, and gradually passed into a stupor and coma on the sixth day, and died on the seventh.

No *post-mortem* was obtained, as his friends were anxious to remove his body.

CASE VIII. J. B. S., Co. B, 48th Pennsylvania Volunteers, German, aged 33. Admitted May 19, 1865, for injury to head. Wounded April 7th, near Richmond Virginia. Musket-ball struck in the centre and upper part of os frontis in the vertical direction of the head, making an incision about two inches in length in the scalp. The pericranium was detached to a small extent, but no fracture was observable.

May 22. Three days after he was admitted, the right temporal region and eyelid became inflamed and cedematous, threatening erysipelas or the formation of an abscess. A high fever accompanied this condition with quick pulse, furred tongue, pain in the head and delirium. Dr. Morton, suspecting an abscess in the temple, made an incision, but none had yet been found. By this means a free local bleeding was accomplished. A brisk cathartic was administered. Tinct. ferri chlor. and quinia freely given, and sol. sulphite sodæ applied to the face and head. Two days following, the opposite side of the face became involved, and head symptoms became more aggravated with approaching comatose symptoms.

24th. Chloroform was administered, a crucial incision made, and a small trephine used to make a section of the bone. Upon exposing the cranium a scarcely perceptible fissure one and a half inch in length was brought to view, from which a thin sanious discharge was issuing. After removing the section it was found that the fissure had extended through both tables and had not fractured either. There was no pressure consequently upon the brain. Quite an amount of pus came from the wound, showing that great disorganization had been going on in the brain. After twenty-four hours lingering the patient succumbed. Coma increased, and he died on the 25th at about 3 o'clock P. M.

Post-mortem revealed greatly congested anterior lobes, with the formation of pus over a large part of the longitudinal sinus. All the vessels of the membranes were much engorged, and at the point of injury disorganization had taken place and the membranes had given way to the suppurative process.

CASE IX. J. B., private Co. K, 100th Pennsylvania Volunteers, American, age 27, single, entered "Mower" Hospital April 9, 1865, with shell wound of head received at Fort Steadman, Virginia, March 25, 1865. A fragment of shell entered just anterior to the junction of coronal and sagittal sutures, fracturing the skull to the extent of three-quarters of an inch but not detaching the bone. No untoward symptoms had as yet developed. General health good; wound looking well. The patient was cautioned as to the serious nature of the injury he had received and the liability to dangerous inflammation, and strict instructions given him as to his following the ordinary precautions laid down in all such cases.

It is a noticeable fact in nearly all head injuries that patients do not realize the degree of danger they are in, owing to the absence of sensible physical signs in an early stage of the injury. There is usually no pain.

April 11. Was thoroughly examined and the case progressing satisfactorily.

15th. Attention arrested to the patient this morning as he complains of sense of pain and weight in the forehead, accompanied with other symptoms of cerebral disturbance. We naturally anticipated serious results, but were happily disappointed, as cold applications to the head, free purgation and general sedative treatment relieved the head symptoms, and in twenty-four hours the patient was much better of the more serious signs. In a few days this man regained his usual condition, and the case continued to progress favourably without even necrosis.

May 29. Discharged, the wound in scalp nearly healed with every prospect of entire recovery.

CASE X. R. C., private Co. H, 31st Maine Volunteers, American, 21 years of age, wounded April 3, 1865, at Petersburg, Virginia. Admitted to "Mower" Hospital, April 9. A piece of shell struck near the anterior superior angle of the left parietal bone, producing a fissure of $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch in length with very slight depression of the external table and denuding the bone of pericranium in the tract of the wound. General condition not below par, and no indication to require other than simple dressing and careful watching.

April 13. Patient complained of pain in head following a chill. Has high fever with cerebral symptoms prominent. As in the preceding case active catharsis was induced, cold applied to the head, and for a few days small doses of calomel and opium given.

Improvement in every respect soon followed and obviated any mechanical interference. This case went on to convalescence, though there was a tendency to necrosis of the outer table still, when last seen, which was in June. The external wound was rapidly healing and the scalp nearly closed. These two cases were under the care of Dr. Longwill.

CASE XI. D. S., private Company D, 26th Pennsylvania Volunteers, American, 40 years of age, received a gunshot wound from a minie ball on the left side of the head, at Spottsylvania Court House, Virginia, May 15, 1864. Admitted to "Mower" Hospital, June 7.

June 8. I examined the case, and found the ball had entered at the external angle of the left eye, passing through the malar bone into the head in the direction of the base of the skull. The man was positive the missile had not been removed. We were unable to find it with the ordinary probe. *The eye was not injured.* The wound remained open for some weeks with little change in the condition of the patient, and we were unable to find the bullet until in November, when we discovered it by means of a Nélaton probe, impacted behind the zygomatic process of the temporal bone. A partial anchylosis of the inferior maxilla had been a result of the injury owing to an enlargement in the glenoid fossa of the temporal bone.

It was determined to attempt the extraction of the ball, Drs. Agnew and Foggo assisting. After chloroform had been administered, I made an elliptical incision along the malar bone from the wound of entrance, and raised a small flap upon that bone. We were able to introduce only a pair of small dressing forceps into the wound, and were obliged to remove, by means of a hammer and chisel, a considerable portion of the malar bone, before we were able to remove the ball, which had been much distorted in shape by the force of its contact with the bones. In our manipulations

we were fearful of injury to the internal maxillary artery, but were spared so serious an accident.

The case passed on rapidly to a cure, with the exception of the ankylosed condition of the lower jaw, owing, we supposed, to inflammation produced in the fossa in which the articulation rests. Passive motion was gradually overcoming this difficulty, when the man was discharged July 23, 1865.

CASE XII. G. S., private Co. —, 50th Heavy Artillery, German, was admitted to "Mower" Hospital, September 12, 1864, suffering from gunshot wound of the left side of the head received at the *second battle of Bull Run, August 29, 1862, more than two years before*. Bullet entered just anterior to the external meatus of left ear, and still remains in the head undiscovered. Ear discharges offensive pus.

November 6. Received an election furlough from which he returned in December. Health not much impaired.

January 5, 1865. Face and head inflamed, and health beginning to give way under a febrile condition.

Patient was put under chloroform and the ball found, by means of a Nélaton probe, imbedded probably in the petrous portion of the temporal bone. We were enabled to get hold of it with different kinds of forceps, but were unable to extract it, and desisted at that time for two reasons. One was that the parts were so excessively sensitive that it seemed nearly impossible to produce anæsthesia after having worked at the ball for a short time; and another reason was we concluded that it would be much more safe to remove the bullet by means of small cutting forceps, which we had not at hand, than to continue forcible means in this locality.

Temporary relief was afforded by our efforts by the opening of a deep seated abscess, and after a few days of illness the patient was again about. He had lost his hearing on this side at the time he was wounded. Necrosis must eventuate, but all our endeavours to induce the patient to submit to any further efforts to remove the missile were unavailing.

We saw the case up to July, 1865, when the large amount of offensive discharge continued, and the man wore an anxious, haggard look, as if he feared serious results. His health was also undermined.

This case was under the care of Dr. Fell, who, with Dr. Agnew, assisted in the attempt to extract the ball.

No. 627 NORTH 13TH STREET, PHILADELPHIA.

ART. VII.—*Physiological Experiments connected with the Silent, Talking, and Passive Movement Pulse, and the Silent Respiration—made by J. H. Salisbury, M. D., and Dr. M. W. House, on Members of the Biological Society, whose Names appear in the Tables; with Explanations and Remarks.* By J. H. SALISBURY, M. D., Professor of Histol., Physiol., and Pathol. in Charity Hospital Med. Coll., Cleveland, Ohio.

THESE observations and experiments have been made with great care, every precaution having been taken to render them reliable and of value. Apparatus was constructed so as to place the body without any effort on

the part of the subject experimented upon, either in a horizontal or perpendicular position, or at any desired angle. The parties experimented upon were all in perfect health, and ranged in age from twenty-four to forty-five, except one—Dr. Henderson—who is fifty-one.

The experiments were performed from two to five hours after eating, and mostly during the evening from 8 to 11 P. M.

Mean of a Series of Experiments on the Silent and Talking Pulse, and on the Silent Respiration.—In these experiments, after the body was placed in any given position, a sufficient time was allowed for the pulse to settle, before the observations in that position were made. This time ranged from two to three minutes. This was found to be abundantly long, as the body was moved by apparatus without the least effort to itself.

		SILENT PULSE.		TALKING PULSE.		SILENT RESPIRATION	
		Number of observations.	Mean pulse.	Number of observations.	Mean pulse.	Number of observations.	Mean respiration.
On the back	Hands raised above the head	8	$67\frac{1}{2}\frac{3}{8}$	2	$75\frac{3}{4}$	2	$15\frac{1}{2}$
Body horizontal,	Hands by side	13	$67\frac{1}{2}$	8	72	7	$15\frac{5}{7}$
	Hands by the side, and head raised 4 in.	6	$71\frac{7}{12}$	1	75	2	13
On the back, legs horizontal, and body inclined at an angle of,	$22\frac{1}{2}^\circ$	6	$73\frac{1}{3}$	10	$77\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{6}$	1	14
	45	14	$75\frac{1}{4}$			8	$16\frac{5}{6}$
	$67\frac{1}{2}$	6	$74\frac{2}{3}$			2	$17\frac{1}{2}$
	90	10	$75\frac{2}{3}$			3	$16\frac{1}{3}$
On the back, body horizontal, and legs inclined at an angle of,	$22\frac{1}{2}$	6	$67\frac{1}{2}$	8	$71\frac{3}{6}$	2	$17\frac{1}{2}$
	45	13	$66\frac{3}{3}$			6	$16\frac{1}{2}$
	$67\frac{1}{2}$	6	$69\frac{1}{3}$			2	$17\frac{1}{2}$
	90	9	$70\frac{8}{9}$			3	$16\frac{1}{3}$
On the back, body and legs inclined at an angle with the hips of,	$22\frac{1}{2}$	6	$69\frac{1}{4}$	10	$71\frac{3}{4}$	2	$15\frac{3}{4}$
	45	14	$66\frac{1}{4}$			7	$16\frac{1}{4}$
On back, body inclined (head highest) at an angle of,	$22\frac{1}{2}$	6	$71\frac{1}{4}$	7	$82\frac{9}{14}$	2	$17\frac{1}{4}$
	45	11	$82\frac{7}{11}$			5	$16\frac{1}{5}$
	$67\frac{1}{2}$	6	$85\frac{1}{4}$				
Body erect,	90	14	$83\frac{1}{4}$	10	$81\frac{1}{4}$	5	18
On back, body inclined (feet highest) at an angle of,	$22\frac{1}{2}$	6	$63\frac{1}{12}$				
	45	8	$61\frac{2}{6}$				
Body horizontal,	On right side	6	$66\frac{2}{3}$			1	20
	On left side	6	$67\frac{7}{12}$				
	On abdomen	6	$69\frac{5}{12}$				

These experiments were made on the following medical gentlemen :
W. W. Firestone, M. D. ; D. B. Elson, M. D. ; R. N. McConnell, M. D. ;

Chas. H. Merriek, M. D. ; R. A. Henderson, M. D. ; Geo. H. Pease, M. D. ; I. J. Livers, M. D. ; J. P. Waste, M. D. ; John S. Hershiser, M. D. ; and Dr. H. A. Root.

The mean silent pulse of 8 observations, position horizontal, on back, with arms extended above the head, is $67\frac{1}{2}$. The mean talking pulse of 2 observations, same position, $75\frac{3}{4}$. The difference between the silent and talking pulse, $7\frac{9}{10}$.

The mean silent pulse of 13 observations, position horizontal, on back, hands by side, $67\frac{1}{2}$. The mean talking pulse of 8 observations, same position, 72. Difference between the silent and talking pulse, $4\frac{1}{2}$.

The mean silent pulse of 6 observations, position horizontal, on back, head raised, 4 inches on a support, $71\frac{7}{8}$. The mean talking pulse, 1 observation, same position, 75. Difference, $3\frac{4}{10}$.

The mean silent pulse of 6 observations, position on back, head highest, body inclined at an angle of $22\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, $71\frac{1}{4}$. Talking pulse, same position not noted. The mean silent pulse of 11 observations, position on back, head highest, body inclined at an angle of 45° , $82\frac{7}{8}$. Talking pulse, mean of 7 observations, same position, $82\frac{9}{14}$. Difference between silent and talking pulse $\frac{2}{100}$, the silent pulse having a fraction the highest.

In gradually elevating the body from a horizontal position (on back) to the erect, an interesting feature will here be noticed. In the horizontal position, the talking pulse is $3\frac{4}{100}$ the highest. At 45° the talking pulse and silent pulse are very nearly equal. In the erect position, the talking pulse is two the lowest.

The difference between the silent pulse, position horizontal, on back, hands by side, mean of 10 observations, and body at an angle of 45° ; mean of 11 observations is $15\frac{1}{100}$; and between the horizontal and perpendicular positions (the latter a mean of 14 observations), $15\frac{7}{100}$.

The difference between the talking pulse (mean of 8 observations) position horizontal, and that of an angle of 45° (mean of 7 observations), is $10\frac{6}{100}$. The difference between the talking pulse, position horizontal, and that of the erect position (mean of 10 observations), $9\frac{2}{100}$. Hence it will be seen that the difference between the silent pulse in different positions is greater than that of the talking pulse in the same positions.

The mean silent pulse of 14 observations, position on back, legs horizontal and body raised at an angle of 45° , is $75\frac{1}{4}$. The mean talking pulse (10 observations), same position, is $77\frac{1}{2}$. Difference $2\frac{1}{100}$. The mean silent pulse (10 observations), position on back, legs horizontal, and body raised at an angle of 90° , is $75\frac{1}{2}$. The mean talking pulse (6 observations), same position, is $78\frac{1}{2}$. Difference 3.

The difference between the silent pulse, mean of 13 observations, positions horizontal, hands by side, and the silent pulse, mean of 4 observations, position on back, legs horizontal, and body raised at an angle of 45° , is $7\frac{8}{100}$. The difference between the talking pulse, same positions,

the former a mean of 8 observations, and the latter 10, is $5\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{0}$. The difference between the silent pulse, mean of 13 observations, position horizontal, hands by side, and the silent pulse, mean of 10 observations, position on back, legs horizontal, and body raised at an angle of 90° , is 8.

The difference between the talking pulse of same positions, the form a mean of 8 observations and the latter of 6, is $6\frac{1}{2}$.

The mean silent pulse (13 observations) position on back, body horizontal, and legs elevated at an angle of 45° , is $66\frac{3}{13}$. The mean talking pulse, of 8 observations, same position, is $72\frac{3}{16}$. Difference, $5\frac{9}{160}$.

The mean silent pulse (9 observations), position on back, body horizontal, and legs raised at an angle of 90° , is $70\frac{8}{9}$. The mean talking pulse (4 observations), same position, is $76\frac{3}{4}$. Difference, $5\frac{8}{100}$.

The difference between the silent pulse (mean of 13 observations), position horizontal, hands by side, and the silent pulse, mean of 13 observations), position on back, body horizontal, and legs raised at an angle of 45° , is $1\frac{2}{100}$, the pulse of the latter position being the lowest. The difference between the talking pulse of same positions (each a mean of 8 observations), is $\frac{1}{100}$, the latter being slightly the highest.

The difference between the silent pulse (mean of 13 observations), position horizontal, hands by side, and the silent pulse (mean of 9 observations), position on back, body horizontal, and legs raised at an angle of 90° , is $3\frac{3}{100}$. The difference between the talking pulse, same positions, mean of 8 and 4 observations, is $4\frac{7}{100}$.

The mean silent pulse (14 observations), position on back, and legs and body raised at an angle with the hips of 45° , is $66\frac{1}{4}$. The talking pulse (mean of 10 observations) of same position, is $71\frac{3}{4}$. Difference, $5\frac{1}{2}$. The silent pulse of this position is $\frac{2}{100}$ less than that of the horizontal position, showing that this position must be slightly more one of muscular rest than the horizontal.

The mean silent pulse (8 observations), position on back, body inclined (feet highest) at an angle of 45° , is $61\frac{9}{16}$. The mean talking pulse, same position; mean of 10 observations is $81\frac{1}{4}$. Difference, $19\frac{6}{100}$. This is a remarkable difference, showing the influence upon the talking pulse of an increased flow of blood to the brain, which would be the tendency in this position. When, however, the brain is quiescent, the pulse is lowered by placing the body in this position. The pulse is about the same when lying upon the back as it is when lying upon the left side. It is slightly lowered by lying upon the right side and elevated by lying upon the abdomen.

The respiration is also increased in a marked degree, by lying in this last mentioned position. The silent respiration is not influenced in any considerable degree by changing the positions of the body. It will, however, be desirable to extend these observations before drawing inferences in this direction. The coming winter this series of experiments will be greatly extended by the Society.

From the foregoing experiments, it appears, as a general rule, that the positions requiring the least muscular effort have the lowest pulse; and that, in such positions, the difference between the silent and talking pulse is greatest. There is an exception to this, where the body is placed on an inclined plane, the head highest. Positions requiring the greater muscular effort have the higher pulse; and the difference between the silent and talking pulse is the least. There is hence a greater difference between the silent pulse of positions requiring muscular effort, and those requiring little or none, than between the talking pulse of the same positions; showing quite conclusively that the muscular and nerve influences over the pulse, are to a great extent independent of each other.

When the body is inclined upon a plane surface (head highest) and there being no muscular effort, there is but little difference between the silent and talking pulse; but when the body is inclined with the feet highest, the difference is very great; the silent pulse being very low, while the talking pulse is that of the horizontal position with hands by side.

Mean Results of Three Series of Observations, made on Drs. Elson, Patterson, and Sommers, showing the Influence of Passive Motion upon the Pulse.

	Mean of the three series of observations.
Standing, hands by side	82
In the horizontal position (hands by side), on back	66 $\frac{2}{3}$
Horizontal position, with passive motion of right leg, flexing and extending it on hip, from horizontal to an angle of 45°, every four pulsations	69
Same position, right and left limbs flexed and extended every four pulsations	77 $\frac{1}{3}$
Same position, right and left limbs flexed and extended alternately every four pulsations	79 $\frac{1}{3}$
Same position; flexing and extending right leg; thigh per- pendicular and leg horizontal, bending knee at right angles every four pulsations	74
Same position; both legs flexed and extended; thighs per- pendicular and legs horizontal, every four pulsations	89
Same position; flexing and extending legs; thighs alternately perpendicular and horizontal, and legs horizontal, every four pulsations	88 $\frac{1}{6}$
Same position; flexing alternately arms from horizontal to perpendicular, and then flexing arms at elbows at right angles, every four pulsations	71 $\frac{2}{3}$
Same position; raising arms alternately from horizontal to perpendicular every four pulsations	71 $\frac{1}{3}$
Same position; flexing alternately forearm from horizontal to perpendicular, every four pulsations	69
Same position; flexing arms across chest, alternately every four pulsations	67 $\frac{1}{3}$

These observations are the beginning of a series which will be continued during the coming winter. The few here presented are sufficient to indicate the influence of passive motion upon the pulse. It will be seen that the mean horizontal pulse is $66\frac{2}{3}$. That the mean horizontal pulse, with passive movement of the right leg, upon the hip, from horizontal to an angle of 45° every four pulsations is 69. That the mean pulse of same position with right and left legs flexed and extended at same time, every four pulsations is $77\frac{1}{3}$. That the mean in same position, the right and left legs flexed and extended alternately every four pulsations, is $79\frac{1}{3}$. That the mean pulse from flexing and extending the right leg, thigh perpendicular and leg horizontal (bending knee at right angles), every four pulsations, is 74. This is five more pulsations per minute than when flexing the leg on the hip (without bending the knee) at an angle of 45° . The mean pulse, where the legs are flexed and extended alternately, thighs perpendicular, and legs horizontal, every four pulsations, is $88\frac{1}{6}$. The mean pulse from flexing alternately arms from horizontal to perpendicular, and then flexing arms at elbows at right angles every four pulsations, is $71\frac{2}{3}$. The mean pulse from raising the arms alternately from horizontal to perpendicular every four pulsations without bending the elbows is $71\frac{1}{3}$. The mean pulse from flexing alternately the forearm from horizontal to perpendicular every four pulsations is 69. The mean pulse from flexing alternately the arms across breast every four pulsations is $67\frac{1}{3}$. It will be seen from the foregoing that the pulse is increased in proportion to the amount of passive muscular movement.

ART. VIII.—*Experiments Connected with the Effects of the Sulphate of Quinia and Cinchonia upon the Healthy Pulse.* By D. B. ELSON, M. D.

THE experiments the first day in the first series, show the pulse without quinia. Those of the second day show the effect upon the pulse of two grains of quinia taken every half hour. The third, the effect upon the pulse of five grains of quinia taken every half hour. The fourth, the same. The fifth, the effect upon the pulse of ten grains of quinia taken every half hour. The sixth, the effect of twenty grains of quinia taken every half hour.

In the second series, the experiments of the first day show the effect upon the pulse of five grains of the sulphate of cinchonia, taken every half hour. Those of the second show the effect upon the pulse of ten grains of cinchonia, taken every half hour. Those of the third, the effect of twenty grains of the sulphate of cinchonia, taken every half hour.

The detailed results are omitted, the means only being given.

Daily Means Calculated from the Detailed Observations.

	Day of observation.	No. of observations.	Mean pulse of each day's observations.
No medication	1	6	70 $\frac{1}{2}$
2 grains of quinia every half hour till 5 doses are taken	2	5	70 $\frac{1}{2}$
5 grains of quinia every half hour till 8 doses are taken	3	8	69 $\frac{3}{8}$
5 grains of quinia every half hour till 3 doses are taken	4	3	69 $\frac{1}{2}$
10 grains of quinia every half hour till 10 doses are taken	5	10	69 $\frac{1}{2}$
20 grains of quinia every half hour till 10 doses are taken	6	10	73 $\frac{3}{8}$
5 grains of cinchonia every half hour till 11 doses are taken	1	11	76 $\frac{1}{2}$
10 grains of cinchonia every half hour till 12 doses are taken	2	12	78 $\frac{1}{8}$
20 grains of cinchonia every half hour till 11 doses are taken	3	11	94 $\frac{8}{10}$

The quinia, while it increased the volume of the pulse, did not appear very much to influence its rapidity, while the cinchonia decidedly accelerated it.

ART. IX.—*Ophthalmia Epidemica on board the U. S. Ship Jamestown, at Yokohama, Japan, in 1863.* By THOMAS C. WALTON, M.D., Passed Assistant Surgeon U. S. Navy.

CASE I. *August 11, 1863.* A. S. B., Acting Master U. S. Navy, aged 21, native of Massachusetts, of plethoric habit of body, general health excellent. The patient was exposed to the sun's rays for several hours yesterday while on shore; towards evening he experienced a smarting pain in his right eye. On examination this morning the right conjunctiva is found to be considerably injected, most marked on the inferior palpebral portion, and secreting muco-purulent matter. No pain is experienced, but the eye feels hot, and as if sand were in it; there is slight photophobia. Bowels regular; pulse and skin natural. Ordered low diet; to bathe the eye frequently with warm water, and to keep out of bright light. R.—Zinci sulphatis, gr. ij; morphie sulph. gr. j; aquæ destil. ℥j. Misce et ft. collyrium. Signa. Allow a few drops to fall on the eye thrice daily.

12th. Inflammation of right conjunctiva subsiding; that of the left eye became inflamed last evening, and is now more injected than the other. Treatment continued.

13th. Improving; ocular conjunctiva of right eye nearly clear. Secretion from both decreasing, and becoming less purulent.

14th. Right eye nearly well; left conjunctiva clearing up.

15th. Right eye well; left palpebral conjunctiva slightly injected. Collyrium to be continued another day. Discharged to duty.

CASE II. August 25, 1863. J. B., ship's cook, æt. 27, native of Delaware; scrofulous diathesis; general health good. Came under treatment with both conjunctivæ inflamed; one became affected thirty-six hours ago, and the other twelve hours afterwards, but he persisted in attending to his duties as cook until the sight of the fire became intolerable. Has considerable photophobia, the palpebral conjunctivæ of both eyes is much injected, and secretes a copious muco-puruloid matter. Bowels regular; appetite poor; pulse natural. R.—Argenti nitratis, gr. ij; aquæ destil. ʒj. Fiat solutio. Signa. Allow a drop or two to fall on the conjunctiva twice daily. Inject a dilute solution of alum occasionally between the eyelids, and bathe the eyes frequently with warm water. Keep in the dark.

26th. Excessive chemosis exists, with infiltration of the eyelids; the palpebral conjunctivæ are much injected, while the ocular portion is pale. Increase the strength of the nitrate of silver collyrium to six grains to the ounce; continue the alum injection, and omit the warm water bathing. R.—Liq. plumbi diacet. ʒj; tinct. opii acet. ʒss; aquæ, ʒvii. Misce. Signa. Keep a piece of lint saturated with the solution constantly applied over the eyes.

28th. Chemosis continues, with injection of the conjunctivæ extending over the entire tissue. Eyelids infiltrated and stiff; complains of circumorbital pain. No evidence of other ocular tissue being implicated. Bowels regular; pulse good. Treatment continued. Also apply vesicat. cantharidis over each mastoid process for eight hours; afterwards dress the blistered surfaces with simple cerate.

29th. Chemosis of right eye subsided, that of left much lessened; injection about the same. Dress blistered surfaces with cerat. sabinæ. Continue other treatment.

30th. Chemosis altogether subsided; inflammation much lessened, and secretion diminished; has but little pain or photophobia.

September 1. Improving; ocular conjunctiva clear; that of palpebræ still injected. Blistered surfaces raw, change dressing for latter to simple cerate. Continue other treatment.

3d. Palpebral conjunctivæ still slightly injected; blistered surfaces healed. Discontinue treatment except using the zinc collyrium twice daily. At bedtime apply unguent. hydrag. nitrico-oxidi to the margins of the eyelids.

5th. Well. Discharged to duty.

Remarks.—The foregoing are two cases of an epidemic ophthalmia which occurred on board the U. S. Ship Jamestown, when at the port of Yokohama, Japan, during the months of August and September, 1863. The disease was prevailing in the settlement at the time, and extended from there to the ship. It is said by the oldest European residents to prevail with greater or less severity during those months every year.

In all ninety persons were treated on board for the disease (the ship's crew at the time numbered two hundred and twenty). Officers and men, the negro and the white, the young and the old, were alike affected. Those who had been on shore were first attacked a few hours before their return to the ship; the majority from twelve to twenty-four hours afterwards.

When the disease was at its height on board, a few persons were attacked who had not been on shore for months, and had not been exposed to the sun's rays. One case was that of a patient screened off from the rest of the ship's company, who was attacked by the disease the evening following one in which a man suffering from the affection had slept in an adjacent hammock.

Its duration in individual cases was from ten to twelve days, the average period of treatment was five days; the epidemic prevailed on board of the ship twenty-five days. Both eyes were universally attacked, the left one fifty-three times first, the right one thirty-seven times. Perfect recoveries were made in all. In only one case was there a relapse, that of a quartermaster who went on duty too early. In none did the disease occur a second time; but from the experience of residents on shore persons having the disease one year, may become affected with it the succeeding one.

The tendencies of the disease were not particularly destructive where ordinary care was taken. The first case given illustrates the degree in which the majority were affected; the other is as it occurred in broken-down constitutions, or in persons who were long exposed to causes productive of ocular inflammation.

In treating the mild cases, seclusion from light, frequently bathing the eye with warm or cold water, as found most agreeable, and in some the use of mild, astringent collyria was all that was necessary. In the more severe cases stronger collyria were indicated, also frequent cleansing the eye of the purulent secretion, counter-irritation, and attention to the general health. In no case that presented itself would depletory measures have been beneficial. In clearing up the remaining conjunctival injection, an application to the margin of the eyelids of the unguent. hydrarg. nit. oxydi was found to be very effectual.

Regarding the causes of the affection nothing definite can be stated. It may have been due to some atmospheric peculiarity probably aided by the fine silicious particles which were being blown about from off the streets of Yokohama, and by exposure to the sun's rays during the middle of the day. No doubt many cases were due to its propagation by contagion, actual contact of the secretion with the conjunctiva being, I believe, essential. During the prevalence of the epidemic many persons who were not affected with the disease were troubled with an itchiness or tenderness of the conjunctiva, and a hyper-secretion of the Meibomian glands. The epidemic visited all or nearly all the ships in the harbour, some fifty in number.

ART. X.—*Ligation of the Axillary Artery in the First Portion of its Course.* By JOHN H. BRINTON, M. D., of Philadelphia.

THE ligation of the axillary artery in its continuity has been frequently performed during the late war, for the arrest of hemorrhage following gunshot wounds, and after amputation. In most of the instances reported the ligation of the vessel has been effected low down in the axilla, below the point at which it is crossed by the pectoralis minor muscle. The artery is here superficially placed, and can usually be exposed and tied with comparative ease and certainty.

But cases have occasionally occurred, one or two of which the writer has witnessed, in which the ligature of the axillary in the lower portion of its course has proved to be a matter of impossibility, owing to a lacerated or sloughing condition of the part, or to the excessive extravasation of blood. Under such circumstances, a departure from Mr. Guthrie's excellent rule of ligating a wounded artery at its point of injury has been warranted, and the operation of tying the subclavian or the axillary artery in its continuity in the first portion of its course, has been resorted to. Most generally military surgeons have preferred to attack the subclavian rather than the axillary above the pectoralis minor. This indisposition to attempt the ligature of the latter vessel at the point indicated is probably based on its deep-seated position, its complicated relations, and the liability of failure to reach and successfully isolate it; a failure which may occur at the hands of experienced operators. That the uncertainty of this operation is not overestimated will be evident when it is remembered that even so skilled a master in surgery as Dupuytren himself, occupied forty minutes in his search for the vessel, and only succeeded in finding it after the application of twelve or thirteen ligatures on the smaller arteries.

Before alluding to the methods usually employed to find the axillary artery in the first position of its course, it will be well to glance for a moment at its anatomical relations. It will be remembered that this vessel, the continuation of the subclavian, extends from the lower margin of the first rib to the lower border of the axilla, as indicated by the inferior margins of the pectoralis major and latissimus dorsi muscles. Its course from its commencement to its termination in the brachial is slightly curved, and the point at which it passes from beneath the clavicle when the latter is in the horizontal position is about the middle of the middle third of the bone. In its progress through the axilla the artery is crossed by the pectoralis minor muscle, which divides it into three portions; the first *above* the muscle, the second *behind*, and the third *below* it. In the first portion of its course the artery rests in a triangle, the subclavicular, which is bounded above by the clavicle, below and externally by the upper border of the pectoralis minor, and below and internally by the upper border of the sternal

portion of the pectoralis major. Externally and posteriorly to the artery rest the branches of the axillary plexus of nerves, and internally and nearer to the sternum the great axillary vein, which when distended with blood during expiration somewhat covers the artery. The cephalic vein, emerging from the intermuscular space between the deltoid and the clavicular portion of the pectoralis major muscle, crosses the apex of the subclavicular triangle and empties into the axillary vein in front of the artery. The tissues which cover the axillary artery in the first portion of its course are the skin and superficial fascia, with some fibres of the platysma-myoid muscle, the pectoralis major muscle, more especially its clavicular portion arising from the inner third of the clavicle, the costo or coraco-clavicular membrane which stretches from the upper border of the pectoralis minor to the subclavius muscle, and loose cellular tissue.

The methods laid down in the books and usually employed for the ligation of the axillary are the following :—

First, That which is known as the *ordinary* process, which consists of a straight incision parallel to and about one-half of an inch below the clavicle. This incision is continued down, the pectoralis major muscle being divided in its track until the artery is reached. The objections to this process are the limited room afforded to the search of the operator, and the obscurity which results from the hemorrhage from the vessels divided in the incision through the muscle and which are not readily tied.

Second, *Hodgson's operation*, consisting of a semilunar incision, convex downwards below the clavicle, involving about the same extent of surface as the ordinary process. This method answers well enough on the cadaver, but on the living subject it would probably not sufficiently uncover the vessel to permit of its ligation with certainty. It would, moreover, be attended with considerable destruction of the muscle, and with hemorrhage from the smaller vessels.

Third, *Lisfranc's operation*. This surgeon advised a single incision directly over the interstice between the two portions of the pectoralis major muscle, the incision to be continued down through this interstice until the artery be found. As this procedure affords but scanty room for the operator's manipulation even on the cadaver, it would be scarcely advisable to attempt it upon the living patient.

Fourth, *Chamberlayne's operation*. This consists of a double incision, one horizontal and parallel to the clavicle, and the other passing from the outer angle of the first, along the muscular interspace existing between the deltoid and pectoralis major. By raising the flap thus exposed, the axillary artery can be reached below the pectoralis minor muscle.

Fifth, *Keate's operation*, in which an incision is made directly over the vessel obliquely outwards and downwards from the middle third of the clavicle. This process would appear to be open to the same objections as Lisfranc's operation, although to a less degree.

All of the procedures above alluded to for the ligation of the axillary artery in the first portion of its course, appeared to the writer to be from some cause or other objectionable and scarcely applicable upon the living subject. He therefore determined, early in the late war, that should he meet with a proper case for the ligation of the first portion of the axillary artery, he would avail himself of the method devised and published by Professor Pancoast, of Philadelphia.¹ From frequent practice upon the cadaver he felt assured that the operation of Pancoast could be readily performed with almost an absolute certainty of finding the vessel at the desired point without injury to the great nerves and veins, and without undue laceration of the soft parts. An opportunity for the performance of this operation presented itself to him in the summer of 1863, and as he has recently been informed by Dr. Pancoast that this was the first application upon the living subject of his process, the outlines of the case are herewith submitted.

M. H., a soldier, about thirty years of age, was wounded in the middle of the left arm, by a cylindro-conoidal bullet, during the first day's fight at the battle of Gettysburg. The arm was amputated on the field, just below the insertion of the pectoralis major. Two or three days subsequent to this operation the patient was admitted into one of the temporary hospitals established in the town of Gettysburg. Shortly after his admission the flaps sloughed to a considerable extent, and slight secondary hemorrhage occurred, which was arrested by pressure on the axilla. About the eighth day after the amputation the secondary hemorrhage recurred. An attempt was made by the medical officer in charge to ligate the axillary artery low down in the axilla, but owing to the disintegrated condition of the soft parts, and the local extravasation of blood, the effort was unsuccessful. The bleeding was then partially checked by renewed pressure in the axilla.

At this time I was first called in to see the patient. Much blood had already been lost; the condition of the soft parts on the inside of the arm, and in the lower part of the axilla was extremely bad. I did not consider it advisable to attempt further operative interference on the parts already implicated. As no time was to be lost I decided to ligate the axillary artery in the first portion of its course, according to the method proposed by Dr. Pancoast. The patient was accordingly laid upon his back, and the stump of the arm was carried outward by an assistant. An imaginary line was then drawn from the sterno-clavicular articulation to the lower border of the insertion of the pectoralis major muscle, so as to determine the position of the interspace between the clavicular and sternal portions of this muscle. Along this line an incision about four and a half inches long was made through the integuments, commencing about one inch external to the sterno-clavicular articulation. The interspace between the sternal and clavicular portions of the muscle, which was readily distinguished, was next opened with the handle of the knife, and the fascia on the posterior surface of the muscle was divided on a director. The fibres of the muscle were then relaxed by bringing the stump toward the body. An assistant was then directed to insert the forefinger of each hand beneath the clavicular portion of the muscle, pushing his fingers up as far as the

¹ "Treatise on Operative Surgery," Philadelphia, 1846, p. 58, &c.

clavicle. He was thus enabled to grasp and compress between his fingers and thumbs the muscle and integuments, which were then divided up to the centre of the clavicle by an incision perpendicular to the course of the muscular fibres. The space resulting from the incision and the consequent retraction of the divided ends of the muscle, was amply sufficient to allow the search for the vessel being conducted with certainty and rapidity. The hemorrhage, which was inconsiderable, was arrested by a single ligature before the divided muscle was released from the assistant's grasp. The strong fascia which stretches from the pectoralis minor to the subclavius was next raised with the forceps and carefully torn across, and the cellular tissue beneath gently broken up above the origin of the acromio-thoracic trunk. The axillary artery, which was feebly pulsating, was then readily isolated, and a ligature was thrown around it with the effect of instantly arresting the hemorrhage from the stump. The cephalic vein was not exposed during the steps of the operation, although by close examination its location could be discovered; but neither it nor the axillary vein, which latter slightly overlapped the artery, were loosened from their cellular connections.

It should be here observed that in this operation the position assumed by the surgeon is important. He should stand, as was done in this case, above the patient's shoulder, and operate from above downwards. If he should stand below the shoulder he would instinctively, as it were, work towards himself, and most probably endanger the cephalic vein, if indeed he should not fall below the axillary vein. The writer has so often observed these results in operations upon the cadaver, in which the manipulator has stood in the objectionable situation, that he is led to regard the position which the operator should hold to his patient as a matter not to be overlooked.

The operation above described occupied certainly not more than three minutes in its performance, and was attended with no difficulty whatever. The exposure of the deep-seated parts by the second incision was complete, and the vessel was readily arrived at, and easily isolated without prolonged search or injurious handling of the parts. Nor were the large veins and nerves subjected to the contact of instruments or of the fingers.

It is to be regretted that the writer cannot add to the foregoing account a statement of a successful issue to this case. Unfortunately the result was otherwise. The patient did well for ten or twelve days, but eventually died of hemorrhage from the axillary artery at the point of ligature, occurring at the time of the separation of the thread.

The untoward result in this case does not, however, militate against the feasibility of the operation, which would appear to offer incontestable advantage over all of the ordinary processes for the ligation of the axillary artery in its upper portion; and which must unquestionably be attended with less risk to life than the operation for the ligature of the subclavian.

ART. XI.—*Successful Resection of both Bones of the Forearm, for Ununited Fracture of long standing.* By SAMUEL J. JONES, A. M., M. D., Surgeon U. S. Navy.

CHARLES DONALD, aged 43, mariner, constitution good, received a fracture of the radius and ulna of his left forearm, produced by the fall of a spar in New Orleans, in March, 1864. The fracture was dressed at that time, but bony union did not follow. After the accident, the mobility continued to be so great at the seat of injury—the junction of the middle and upper thirds of the forearm—that an effort to hold the forearm in a horizontal position was attended with marked inclination of the limb, below the seat of injury. Every attempt to use the limb caused it to become swollen and painful, thus preventing him from engaging in any employment.

Fifteen months after the original injury, I first saw the patient, and found the condition described, and at least one inch of shortening in the forearm. By making an H incision on the dorsal aspect of the forearm, one incision being made lengthwise over the radius, and another over the ulna, and uniting the two by a transverse one made at the points of the fracture, the parts were exposed, showing that firm ligamentous union had taken place, binding down the ends of the bones. The fragments had been prevented from uniting by the interposition of muscular fibres, around which the ligamentous bands had accommodated themselves. The fracture was an oblique one, and the lower fragments were over-riding the upper, thereby causing the shortening. The ligamentous bands were divided in the operation, and the fragments that had become rounded at the ends, were removed by means of a chain-saw, so as to bring the square surfaces in apposition, which left the arm still about one inch shorter.

The hemorrhage was very slight and the wound was closed with interrupted stitches, and an internal and an external splint applied; the latter having a rectangular opening left at the point of incision to dress the wound. Cold water-dressing was applied.

It soon became apparent that those splints did not accomplish the desired object of keeping the ends of the bones in apposition, and Passed Assistant Surgeon William C. Lyman, U. S. Navy, suggested the use of a modification of the ordinary fracture-box, in which the forearm should be supported by means of adhesive plaster secured to the outside of the box, and descending two-thirds of the distance to the bottom on the inside, and both bones kept in a vertical position, by packing each side of the forearm with charpie. This packing could readily be graduated as occasion demanded, and the adhesive-strips afforded sufficient support for whatever pressure was made, and the temperature was easily regulated by moistening the charpie with water at the temperature desired. The limb did not reach to the bottom of the box by an inch or more, and the dripping resulting from any excess of discharge or too free use of the water-dressing, was prevented from running out of the box into the patient's bed, by means of pieces of lint or other absorbing substance placed in the bottom of the box, and readily removed, whereby the dressing was rendered very clean and neat as well as very cool. Two difficulties were, however, encountered. The strip of adhesive-plaster at the point where the ends of the bones were in apposition, seemed to press too directly on them, making an acute angle in the ulna, instead of allowing it to lie horizontally. This was remedied by placing a splint on the strips, on which the forearm rested throughout its length.

The second difficulty was to give to the box sufficient motion to prevent movements of the body from displacing the fragments, if those movements were sudden, as was the case whilst the box lay on the bed by the side of the patient. This was remedied by suspending the box from a point higher than the patient, who raised or lowered the box himself at will. Thus after a few weeks he could rise from his bed and occupy a chair by his bedside, by simply shifting the suspending cord to the desired height.

The arm was kept in the box for eight weeks, and on its removal therefrom, it was found that the union was sufficiently firm to prevent dropping of the hand when the arm was held in a horizontal position as it had done before, but the union was again only ligamentous.

After allowing about a month to elapse for the patient to recover from his confinement, the original incisions were reopened, and the ligamentous bands with less than one-fourth of an inch from each fragment of the bones removed, again bringing the flat surfaces in apposition, and firmly securing them there by means of silver wire. The forearm was then again placed in the fracture-box, and treated as in the first operation. At the end of eight weeks it was removed from the box, and supported for a short time by a temporary splint, the incisions having closed except where the twisted wires were projecting.

On my detachment from duty at New Orleans, the case was left in charge of Dr. Heber Smith of that city, who subsequently removed the wires by untwisting them and forcibly drawing them out. He reports that in December, six months after the first operation, and twenty-one months after the original injury, the openings had finally closed, and osseous union had taken place in both radius and ulna, giving the man a quite useful arm, though nearly one and a half inch shorter than the other. The displacement of the fragments from the time the injury was received caused the muscles of the forearm to adapt themselves to the change, and the absorption caused thereby left the muscles in proportion to the length of the bones remaining, which proved to be an advantage.

The dressing used in this case commends itself for its cleanliness, for the ease with which it can be applied and changed, and for the convenience with which pressure can be graduated as desired. It seems applicable to all cases in which the fracture-box is ordinarily used.

During the eight weeks that the limb was each time in the box, it was only necessary to change the adhesive strips once, except the one strip at the point of the transverse incision where the discharge was greatest, all the strips adhering firmly to the wood until removed.

ART. XII.—*Efficacy of Persulphate of Iron as an Hæmostatic.* By
W. A. WETHERBY, M. D., of New York.

Two very marked cases of the efficacy of Monsel's salt as a styptic have recently come under my notice, one of which suggested, I believe, a new use for this article. I present the results of my observation and experience in the hope that they may prove not altogether unacceptable.

CASE I. On March 3d, of the present year, Dr. S. T. E. Beck, of No. 40 Bond Street, New York, and myself were suddenly called in the case of

Mr. M. S., the well-known musical agent and manager, upon whom one of the most skilful surgeons of this city had, a few hours previously, performed the operation of excision of the tonsils in a very satisfactory manner, and with apparent safety to the patient; excessive hemorrhage in such cases being of rare occurrence. On our arrival, however, the blood was flowing at a very rapid rate; and, judging from appearances, the patient, who already had begun to show signs of syncope, had lost some forty or fifty ounces. We procured a drachm of Monsel's salt as soon as possible, and with a moistened probang covered with the powder touched the bleeding parts.

The effect was almost instantaneous: but lest there might be a recurrence of the difficulty, we dissolved the remainder in water, to be used as a gargle. The further management of the case was, as usual, very simple, and not a drop of blood flowed from the parts after the first application.

CASE II. This case is more singular in many of its features, and may, perhaps, suggest a more extended use of this preparation than has heretofore been made.

During the night of April 25, 1865, I was called, perhaps more to fulfil the requirements of decency than from any confidence in the efficacy of my services, to visit Dr. L. N., of this city, who was suffering from an alarming attack of hæmoptysis, which had failed to yield to the more usual remedies, as lead, opium, &c. It had been preceded for several weeks by a severe cough, profuse, purulent expectoration, extreme emaciation, and, in fine, by all the symptoms incident to that slow but sure destroyer, consumption. The patient himself was aware of his condition, and had lost all hope of recovery, but begged me at least to make an effort to prolong his life for a few hours that he might dictate some last bequests to his friends abroad. Emboldened by my previous success with the article, and reflecting that all the usual legitimate preparations had failed, I sent for some *persulphate of iron*, very dry, and reduced to an impalpable powder. A small quantity of this was administered by *insufflation* into the lungs every hour during the remainder of the night and the following day. The success in arresting the hemorrhage was *perfect*, and encouraged by this, I was induced to experiment still farther in correcting the discharge of matter from the lungs. Directing its use in the same manner, though with less frequency, for some time, and assisted by the action of general remedies, I soon had the satisfaction of seeing my patient leave his bed, his room, and in a short time, his house; and now, in a few months afterwards, he is prosecuting a large and successful practice in his profession, subjecting himself to all its arduous duties with no inconvenience or ill health.

I merely submit these facts as hints to the profession to examine more fully into the uses which this preparation may be made to serve.

September, 1865.

ART. XIII.—*Arterial Hemorrhage Treated by Compression.* By ELI D. SARGENT, M. D., U. S. Navy.

E. H. S., mate on board the U. S. S. "Chocura," aged thirty-one years, native of New York, while the vessel was lying in Tampa Bay at 7 A. M., February 22, 1866, accidentally inserted a pocket-knife blade

three-fourths of an inch in width and three inches in length, in his left thigh three and three-fourths inches upwards and inwards from the upper border of the patella, and two and three-fourths inches inwards from the middle of the rectus femoris muscle. Direction of the wound towards the centre of the femur, consequently towards the upper portion of the popliteal artery. He states that he distinctly felt the point of the blade against the bone, and that upon withdrawing it a jet of blood the size of the wound was thrown against his breast, he being in a sitting posture.

My steward being at hand immediately applied compression, and when I reached the patient a few moments after the accident, a tourniquet had been applied to the middle third of the thigh so as to partially control the hemorrhage, but arterial blood was still flowing in faint jets. The patient was in a state of partial syncope and evidently much alarmed. Another tourniquet applied over Scarpa's space reduced the bleeding to dropping, which was perhaps venous blood, but as it had not ceased at 7.30 A. M., a compress saturated with liq. ferri persulphas and a firm bandage were applied. At 8.30 A. M. dropping entirely ceased. At 11 A. M. the bandage dry and adherent, and time having elapsed for the formation of a coagulum sufficient to offer some little resistance to the flow of blood I ventured to cautiously loosen the tourniquets. This was repeated every hour, and at 2 P. M. the last tourniquet was removed without causing hemorrhage. The lower portion of the limb now showed symptoms of the re-establishment of the circulation. The patient was kept perfectly quiet in a cot, with the limb elevated and closely watched.

February 27. No recurrence of hemorrhage; limb allowed to be moved about in the cot. Patient complains of deep-seated pain referred to the femur.

March 2. Removed bandage and compress; no hemorrhage; no marks of suppuration; the wound is partially united by first intention; a firm fibrinous clot fills the remainder of the deep narrow incision; ordered poultices applied.

5th. Complains of headache and shows signs of slight prostration. Ordered pills of the sulphate of quinia and iron, five grains each, one to be taken three times a day before eating for three days.

7th. Much improved.

11th. Commences to sit up, but still complains of pain, now referred to the knee. Clot is gradually exuding.

13th. Still complains of pain and numbness in the affected limb.

19th. Wound completely closed; a small tumefaction the size of an almond can be felt beneath the seat of the injury; I cannot detect in it any symptoms of aneurism; strength increasing; is allowed to go to duty having been on the sick list twenty-five days.

23d. I examined the limb and found that the tumefaction had almost or entirely disappeared. So much weakness still remained as to cause slight limping, especially after long standing or walking.

This case I consider exceedingly interesting in showing to what extent compression may sometimes suffice to arrest hemorrhage which might at first be thought to demand the application of a ligature. At the time of the accident I determined to apply ligatures at the seat of the injury rather than risk recurrent hemorrhage which might supervene upon ligating in Scarpa's space. Fear of causing inflammation of the knee-joint by an

extensive incision in the vicinity of that articulation together with certain peculiarities of the circulation counterindicating the exhibition of anæsthetics at the time, led me when the hemorrhage ceased to defer an operation until its recurrence should make its necessity imperative.

As the result shows, this did not recur, and my most sanguine expectations are exceeded by a recovery without aneurism or any permanent unfavourable sequelæ.

U. S. S. CHOCURA, PENSACOLA BAY, FLA., March 26, 1866.

ART. XIV.—*Case of Dislocation of Fifth Cervical Vertebra.* By C. C. GRAY, Asst. Surgeon U. S. A.

ON the morning of Feb. 10, 1866, I was called to see private John Frank, Co. B., 2d U. S. Infantry, who was reported "badly hurt by a fall." I found the patient, a muscular powerful German of 35, lying upon a table in the company kitchen; his face pale, respiration sighing, pulse slow and full. From himself, and from those about him, I gathered the following particulars relative to the accident. About ten minutes before, he had invited the bystanders to witness a gymnastic feat.

A few yards away the ground was thickly littered with short straw, which had been emptied from bedsacks. Starting towards this straw, he ran a few steps, and bounding two or three feet into the air, attempted to throw a somersault without touching hands or head. Although accustomed to perform this exploit, he from some cause failed upon this occasion. Instead of alighting upon his feet, his head struck the earth or rather straw, and he rolled over upon his side, and lay motionless. As he did not arise, his comrades approached, and found him in the condition mentioned above.

Upon examination, I found that sensation and power of motion were alike wanting from the neck downward. The walls of the chest were motionless, and respiration was effected by the diaphragm alone.

He was unable to raise the head, but moved it freely from side to side. In attempting to examine the neck, it was necessary to lift the head from the table, which movement caused so much distress that I was obliged to desist. I, however, discovered—as I thought—a slight but unusual depression immediately below the spinous process of the fourth or fifth cervical vertebra.

The patient was conveyed to the regimental hospital, and placed upon a hard mattress, all pillows having been removed.

Asst. Surgeon S. H. Hornor, U. S. A., saw the case with me, and together we endeavored to ascertain the nature and extent of the injury. By carefully supporting the head, the patient was turned partially upon his side, and a clear view obtained of the posterior parts of the neck. The examination was very unsatisfactory, for so thick were the layers of muscle and fat, that the usual landmarks, the spinous processes, were indistinct, and we were unable to arrive at a positive diagnosis. It was clear, however, that there was an abnormal gap or depression between the spinous

processes of the fourth and fifth, or fifth and sixth cervical vertebræ; that pressure at this point of depression gave slight pain; that there was an absence of crepitus, and that the movements of the head upon the atlas, and of the atlas upon the axis, were such as to prove that these articulations were not involved. Respiration indicated that the lesion, whatever its nature, was below the origin of the phrenic nerve, while the total paralysis of the upper extremities could not be explained on any other theory than that of injury higher than the origin of the brachial plexus. It was further agreed that we were not likely to benefit the patient by attempting to rectify a distortion, concerning the nature of which we were ignorant. From this time forth he was accordingly undisturbed. My function consisted in directing such small attentions as were possible in the case, and in watching the process of dying.

He lay, as before stated, perfectly supine, breathing by the diaphragm; suffered no pain, and was able to swallow small quantities of fluids. His pulse, which immediately after the accident had been 78, in two hours had fallen to 72. Respirations 20 per minute.

Remained in this condition during the day. In the evening about three ounces of turbid urine drawn off by catheter. On the morning of the 11th, the pulse was 65; respirations 23 per minute. Somewhat drowsy and dull, but perfectly rational and cheerful. Countenance dusky from venous congestion. Liquid food had been twice administered. Urine (six ounces) again evacuated by catheter, and tested, giving a strong acid reaction. In evening, pulse 62; respirations as before; face livid. Four ounces of urine evacuated and tested, giving same result as before.

Died quietly at 6 A. M., Feb. 12th, forty-four hours after injury.

Autopsy five hours after death.—Rigor mortis imperfectly established; suggillation general over posterior portions of body; ulceration had already commenced over sacrum. The lower and back part of neck exhibited tumefaction—slight, yet sufficient to obliterate the depression which had been felt during life. The whole of the cervical portion of the spinal column was exposed by dissection, revealing a dislocation backwards of the fifth cervical vertebra. Both the superior articulating processes of this bone looked directly backwards, and its bifid spinous process was astride of and locked fast upon the neck of the spinous process of the sixth. So perfect was this impaction, that the spinous processes of the fifth and sixth could only be felt as one, until after all the soft tissues covering them had been dissected away. The luxation was "symmetrical" in respect to lateral displacement. Of course, there was a wide interval, one and a half inches between the spines of the fourth and fifth vertebræ, which interval constituted the depression before mentioned.

There was no fracture of the body, pedicles, or laminae of the displaced bone, but on the right side a small fragment of the anterior tubercle of the transverse process had snapped off.

The subflavan and capsular ligaments between the fourth and fifth vertebræ had given way, as had also the attachment of the ligamentum nuchæ to these bones. The anterior and posterior common ligaments were unruptured.

There was a slight extravasation of blood external to the sheath of the spinal marrow, and a considerable quantity between the sheath and the cord. The upper and posterior edge of the fifth cervical vertebra encroached to such extent upon the spinal canal that the cord at this point was bent at an abrupt angle, and its antero-posterior diameter reduced more than half.

The meninges of the cord were not torn, nor was the cord itself lacerated; which may perhaps be explained by the fact that the wide separation of the bones allowed it (the cord) to bulge out posteriorly and thus escape.

The lungs were congested but crepitant throughout; the air-passages filled with frothy mucus; the heart healthy, empty, and well contracted.

The cervical vertebrae were removed entire; the dislocation unaltered. The specimen has been deposited in the Army Medical Museum (Museum Number 549).

I have been unable to find a record of a similar case. So unique a dislocation could only result from a very complex "composition of force and resistance."

CRITTENDEN BARRACKS, LOUISVILLE, KY., April 26, 1866.

ART. XV.—*Successful Removal of both Ovaries.* By A. REEVES
JACKSON, M. D., Stroudsburg, Pa.

SARAH T., aged forty-seven years, unmarried, applied for relief November 25, 1862. She commenced menstruating at the age of seventeen, and the function has always been regularly and painlessly performed. Six or seven years ago, after having taken a severe cold, she felt a sensation which she compared to the occasional slow dropping of water in the region of the bladder. Shortly after this she discovered that the lower portion of her abdomen was enlarged, and that the increase was greatest on the left side. She also felt, indistinctly, a tumour about the size of a small orange in the same locality. In a single night the whole of this enlargement, including the tumour, spontaneously disappeared. However, it soon returned, and she has since been increasing gradually in size. Her complexion is dull and sallow, appetite good, bowels regular, although latterly she has experienced some difficulty in defecation, and also in urinating. The abdomen measures forty-one inches in circumference; is very greatly and equably distended, and distinctly fluctuating, the fluid evidently encysted. No solid tumour is discoverable through the abdominal walls. The left leg and foot are cedematous.

A vaginal examination reveals a hard, smooth, inelastic tumour, immovable or nearly so, completely filling the cavity of the pelvis. The os uteri circular, and with soft lips, is distinguished with some difficulty. An attempt to introduce the sound is unsuccessful, the instrument appearing to meet with some obstruction immediately after entering the os.

Various remedial means were used without relief, and the oppression of the breathing, the swelling of the lower extremities, and other symptoms dependent upon the distension of the abdomen having become insupportable, tapping was decided upon, and performed January 1, 1863, with great and immediate relief to the patient. The fluid removed was glairy, of a pale straw colour, somewhat tenacious, and measured forty-three pints. After its withdrawal the outlines of a solid tumour, occupying the lower portion of the abdomen and extending as high up as the umbilicus, were clearly distinguished, the greatest bulk being apparently on the left side. It was slightly movable, smooth, imperfectly globular, and without evident fluctuation.

The patient remained comfortable several weeks, but the abdomen again became distended, and tapping was repeated December 24, 1863. She was subsequently tapped several times, the intervals between the operations becoming each time shorter, and the last operation being done July 27, 1865.

The patient's general health now began rapidly to fail, and after having the dangers of the operation fully explained to her, she concluded to submit to ovariectomy.

The operation was performed October 31, 1865, in the presence and with the assistance of Drs. Bond, Bush, Barnes, Welling, Davis, Williams, Walton, and Mr. Van Buskirk, medical student. The patient having been well purged in the morning by an ounce of castor oil, was placed upon a narrow table, the nates brought near to the lower end, and her feet resting upon a chair without a back. Everything being in readiness, she was put under the influence of an anæsthetic mixture composed of one part chloroform and two parts of sulphuric ether by measure. An incision four inches in length was made in the linea alba, commencing one inch below the umbilicus, and extending directly downward. This was gradually and cautiously deepened with the view of exposing and tapping the cyst and removing its fluid contents through the canula. The design was frustrated, however, by the knife suddenly entering the cyst and giving exit to sixteen pints of a gelatinous, whitish fluid. In order to facilitate the evacuation of the latter and to guard against its entrance into the peritoneal cavity, the patient was turned completely on to her right side. The cyst having been emptied, it was ascertained that its walls were adherent to the peritoneum at the place of incision, and it was with very great difficulty that the adhesions could be sufficiently broken down to enable the hand to be introduced in order to learn the further condition of the parts involved. When this was finally accomplished it was found that there were two tumours entirely distinct, the one arising from the right, and the other from the left side. The one on the right side was a unilocular cyst with thickened walls, firmly adherent to the mesentery, omentum, intestines, and to the abdominal surface of the peritoneum. It was now empty and collapsed, and was maintained in its position by means of these numerous attachments.

The other, arising from the left side, was hard, firmly adherent to the peritoneal surfaces of the left abdominal and pelvic walls, and to the posterior and left sides of the fundus of the womb. The incision in the abdominal walls having been made sufficiently large, the attachments of the tumour were carefully separated by means of the fingers aided occasionally with the handle of the scalpel. The tumour was then lifted through the opening, and a clamp having been placed firmly upon the pedicle, the tumour was separated and removed. The pedicle, which consisted of the broad ligament of the uterus, was not more than one inch in length, about the thickness of a finger, and somewhat flattened. The empty cyst of the other tumour was next cautiously separated from its many attachments and drawn away. Its pedicle, which also consisted of the broad ligament, was about four inches wide, two and a half inches long, and traversed by large vessels. A clamp was placed upon it, and it was then cut close to its attachment to the tumour. The cavity of the abdomen was next carefully cleansed by means of newly prepared sponges and warm water, and the upper portion of the wound drawn together and retained by means of hare-lip pins and sutures, care being taken to bring the peritoneal surfaces

accurately in contact. The clamps being found to interfere very greatly with the approximation of the edges of the lower portion of the wound, owing to the shortness of the pedicles, it was decided to remove them, and this was accordingly done after previously securing the pedicles by strong ligatures applied beneath the clamps.

The remainder of the wound was then closed by iron-wire sutures and harelip pins. The pedicles, being drawn out by their ligatures, were transfixed by large harelip pins passed also through the edges of the wound, and thus kept on the surface of the abdomen. The stumps beyond the ligatures were freely touched with a solution of persulphate of iron. Strips of adhesive plaster were then placed across the abdomen, and a folded piece of muslin dipped in warm water laid over the part. A flannel bandage pinned around the body and kept in position by means of perineal straps completed the dressing. The patient was now removed from the table and placed in bed. Two teaspoonfuls of elixir of opium were given her, and as she appeared somewhat prostrated, some brandy and water were also administered.

Ten o'clock P. M., complains of great thirst and some pain in the abdomen. Pulse 100, full, tense. Empty the bladder with the catheter, and give two teaspoonfuls of McManu's elixir of opium. Enjoin strict rest, and allow ice held in the mouth to quench thirst.

Sept. 1, 9 A. M. Has slept some during the night; pulse 112; tongue slightly furred; complains of thirst, and slight pain in the abdomen; introduce catheter; allow ice and toast-water. 10 P. M. Still has slight pain; empty bladder.

2d, 6 A. M. Expresses herself as feeling very well. Thinks she is able to get out of bed. Pulse 112; empty bladder. Allow ice and toast-water, with a small quantity of cream added to the latter. 12 M. Has been sleeping, feels quite comfortable; pulse 98. Give two teaspoonfuls elixir opium. 3 P. M. Has been sleeping; pulse 108; empty bladder. 12 midnight. Comfortable; emptied bladder.

3d, 10 A. M. Slept some during the night; pulse 90; comfortable, and has less thirst. Examine the wound for the first time. It looks well, and the union of the edges appears to be perfect, except at the point where the stumps of the pedicles protrude; the latter appear shrunken and blackened. Apply fresh compresses wrung out of warm water; order weak chicken-water as diet, and ice to allay thirst; empty the bladder. 5 P. M. Pulse 100; has been sleeping, and feels well; tongue slightly coated with a whitish fur, a condition which has been present from the first; has taken the chicken-water several times with enjoyment. 12 midnight. Comfortable. Dress the wound, and give two teaspoonfuls elixir opium.

4th, 9 A. M. Pulse 104. Make an entire change of clothing without raising the patient from the bed. The stumps of the pedicles not being removed, apply a flaxseed-meal poultice over that portion of the wound. Order chicken-water with rice, empty bladder, and give full dose of opium. 5 P. M. Comfortable; introduce catheter. 12 midnight. Empty bladder, and give full dose morph. sulph.

5th, 8 A. M. Complains of pain and tenderness in both iliac regions; pulse 100; says the morphia acted unpleasantly, and did not produce sleep. Empty bladder; ordered flannels wrung out of hot water to be kept constantly applied to the abdomen. 1 P. M. Pulse 108; has less pain; appetite good, and takes the broth with great relish. Wound looks well; no

swelling of the abdomen. 12 midnight. Comfortable. Empty the bladder; give full dose of opium.

6th, 10 A.M. Did not sleep well last night, but feels cheerful this morning. Dress lower portion of wound, and apply lard to the sutures and pins at their points of ingress and egress; empty bladder; order the quantity of nourishment to be increased. 5 P.M. Has been sleeping soundly, and feels very comfortable; pulse 92; appetite good; no tenderness of the abdomen on slight pressure. Introduce catheter. 12 midnight. Dress lower end of wound; some of the ligatures on the pedicles are loose; empty bladder; omit the opium.

7th, 9 A.M. Pulse 84; has slept well. Dress lower end of wound; introduce catheter; order 1 oz. castor oil, and permit the head and shoulders to be somewhat raised. 4 P.M. The castor oil has produced three copious evacuations without pain. Dress the lower portion of the wound, and remove two of the sutures; introduce catheter. Patient able to move in any direction without pain. Change her clothes and the bedding; afterwards administer a small quantity of brandy. 12 midnight. Not quite so well; the bowels have been moved three more times, occasioning weakness; pulse 88. Empty bladder; dress the wound; give a full dose of opium.

8th, 9 A.M. Pulse 100; bowels quite loose, and patient feels weak. Dress lower end of wound, and remove one harelip pin; give a cup of strong black tea; introduce catheter. 1 P.M. Bowels have acted four times since last visit. Fearful that such excessive peristaltic action may induce peritonitis; introduce a suppository of morphia into rectum. 4½ P.M. Has been sleeping; pulse 88; bowels quiet since last visit. Empty bladder; order a bowl of strong broth with rice. 12 midnight. Pulse 100; bowels open twice during the evening. Introduce morphia suppository; empty bladder.

9th, 9 A.M. Feels better this morning; pulse 96; bowels not moved since last visit; has had some nausea and vomiting; has taken some coffee and cracker this morning with relish. Dress lower end of wound, and empty bladder. 5 P.M. Pulse 92; bowels moved once. Remove one of the pins that had been passed through the pedicles; introduce catheter. 12 midnight. Pulse 88; feels somewhat uncomfortable from having eaten too freely. Empty bladder; remove two of the wire sutures, and the pin transfixing the other pedicle.

10th, 9 A.M. Feels unusually well; got out of bed this morning and sat on a chair twenty minutes, and emptied the bladder by her own effort; is quite bright and cheerful; pulse 80; a small quantity of fetid pus is discharged when pressure is made on the side of the wound, at the point where the pedicles emerge. 6 P.M. Pulse 80; has been out of bed again to empty the bladder.

11th, 9 A.M. Pulse 76; everything going on favorably. Dress wound carefully, and remove the remainder of the pedicle ligatures. Has been up twice to urinate. 10 P.M. Pulse 72; bowels moved once; appetite excellent; has been up four times during the day.

12th, 9 A.M. Dress the wound. Patient feels quite well this morning. 6 P.M. Still improving; pulse 72; there seems a slight tendency to diarrhœa. Order a morphia suppository.

13th, 9 A.M. Much better. Dress the wound, which is rapidly healing. From this time the patient continued to improve. At the end of three weeks she left her room and walked down stairs. Her recovery was unin-

interrupted, and at this time (April 16, 1866) is in as good health as at any former period of her life.

Remarks.—I make no apology for detailing the foregoing case so fully, for I apprehend that success in ovariectomy, as in other large surgical operations, frequently depends in very great measure upon attention to the *minutiæ* of the after-treatment. And, wherever it is practicable, I would recommend that the operator himself, in so far as may be possible, superintend the management of the case. The reasons for this advice are sufficiently obvious. Others may do well—friends may furnish such attentions as are always pleasant to the invalid, and skilled attendants may perform every duty—but there is none who feels a more intense anxiety for the recovery of a patient than he who has jeopardized that patient's life in order to preserve it.

ART. XVI.—*Tubercular Tumour of Brain.* By M. L. MEAD, M. D.,
of Albany, N. Y.

THE following case is reported with the belief that it will be valuable as a contribution to the literature of organic diseases of the brain.

On the 9th February, 1866, I saw Mrs. B., 47 years old, the mother of three children, the youngest 21 years old. I found her suffering from convulsions of the muscles of the left side of the face, which occurred at intervals of about fifteen minutes, and lasted from fifteen seconds to a minute. During the interval she felt perfectly well, and did not lose consciousness during the spasm. The patient was still menstruating, but at irregular intervals. At the time of this attack she was flowing rapidly.

Three years ago she had two or three convulsions, which I regarded at the time as hysterical, in which she was for some time unconscious. Since then she had been in such health as to be able to take care of a large family of boarders. Three days before these convulsions commenced she was taken in her sleep at night with what I concluded, from her account next morning, to have been a fit similar to those of three years ago.

At first I regarded the convulsions as symptomatic of the derangement of the menstrual functions, and attempted to control them by the use of various antispasmodics, trusting that the excitement would pass over, and she would recover. In this opinion I was confirmed by the advice of Dr. Vanderpoel, and according to his suggestion I gave powders of morphia and camphor. These having no control over the convulsions, except very slightly at first, on the 13th I injected sixteen drops of Magendie's solution of morphia under the skin on the left side of the neck. Four hours later I injected twenty drops. No other effect was produced than sleep during the intervals of the spasms. Meantime the parts affected by the spasms were gradually extending. The orbicularis muscle and the recti muscles of the eye were involved. The angle of the mouth, when at rest, was drawn down slightly, and the tongue when protruded turned towards the left side.

During the morning of the 15th there was nausea. A full dose of ipecac.

and antimony was given, followed by draughts of warm water. Free emesis was produced, and then full doses of morphia administered with the vague hope that the revulsion caused by the emetic, and the sedative influence of the morphia, would "break the fits." In this, as always before, we were disappointed.

I now began to suspect that it was a graver case than we had supposed. Notwithstanding the persistent use of antispasmodic and sedative medicines, we had produced not the slightest effect on the spasms. On the contrary, they were all the time becoming more frequent, more violent, and more extensive, and of longer duration. On the 16th, the left arm was convulsed.

More particular inquiry into the previous history elicited the following facts: She had for years had occasional numbness of the limbs, and strange feelings in the head, which made her think she should go crazy. Her sight at times was disturbed, with inability to read more than a few lines at a time. The action of the bowels had been irregular—constipation and looseness alternating. She had never noticed that these disturbances had any connection with the menstrual periods, which had always been regular and normal. These facts were discussed with my friend Dr. Stevens, in consultation. Here we thought we found signs of more or less disturbance in almost all the cranial nerves. The disturbed vision argued that the second pair was involved. The convulsed action of the eye showed disturbance in the third, fourth, and sixth pairs. As to the motor portions of the fifth, and the portio dura of the seventh, there was no question. After the emetic there was continued nausea at every spasm; and much of the time there had been a strange sense of fluttering of the heart during the convulsion, of which, however, we could discover no sign by the ear or the pulse. Anything affecting the eighth pair of nerves might account for these symptoms. We could not discover satisfactorily any disturbance of the olfactory or auditory sensations. In view of these circumstances we inferred that there must be some lesion at the base of the right side of the brain, in the track of these nerves.

Opposed to this theory was to be considered that she was at a time of life when we might expect a strong influence to be exerted on the nervous centres by the uterine changes; she retained perfect consciousness, and had, except for a short time, no pain in the head. Add to this that she had been suffering these convulsions so long already, with no more signs of exhaustion from the disease if it were organic; and also that the pulse throughout was soft and full, and not rapid, I think it will be admitted that the case was sufficiently obscure.

But changing my mind, as I have said, and supposing that there might be a chronic inflammation of limited extent along the base of the brain, on the 16th I put blisters on the back of the neck, and gave three grain pills of blue mass every third hour for forty-eight hours. At the end of this time the gums were slightly touched. There was no perceptible change of the symptoms certainly no improvement. On the 19th I had in consultation Drs. Vanderpoel, Quackenbush, and Bigelow. The first two agreed that the convulsions were epileptiform, developed by the uterine condition, and *that there was no organic disease.*

The following treatment was advised and followed: Bromide of potassium in scruple doses three times daily; three grain doses of valerianate of zinc in the interval, and ice to the spine. The spasms continued with no change, except that they were more frequent, recurring every five minutes and even oftener, for a long time.

On the evening of the 20th there was complete hemiplegia of the left side. The *flexor* muscles of the arm, and the *extensors* of the leg being rigidly contracted.

From this time the whole body was involved in the spasms. Her strength was very much exhausted; but yet no interruption of consciousness. She continued in this way without material change till the morning of the 22d.

In reply to inquiries by the friends whether there was any hope, and whether I could do anything more for her, I said "No." They then asked and received my consent to "try somebody else." They put her under the charge of a physician who boasted of his skill in cases of *fits*, and whose diagnosis was that *irritation of the mucous coats of the stomach* was the cause of the spasms. I learned that she died at 1 o'clock A. M. the 26th, seventeen days after the establishment of the convulsions.

Post-mortem thirty-nine hours after death, conducted by Dr. Armsby, in presence of Drs. Bigelow, Boulware, Stevens, Haskins, Northrop, and myself. Rigor mortis well marked; only the head examined. On removing the calvarium a small spicula one-eighth of an inch long was found above the right orbit, but no lesion of the brain in the part next to it.

In the anterior lobe of the right cerebral hemisphere, exterior to the posterior lobe of the *corpus striatum*, and involving a deep convolution from the surface of the brain, was found a dark-coloured tumour three-quarters of an inch long and one-half as large in its transverse dimensions. The anterior part was composed of a recent clot of blood. The posterior and larger portion was harder. On cutting through it transversely it appeared to be a tubercular formation with a granular deposit, which felt gritty to the fingers. A portion of the pathological specimen when placed under the microscope was found to consist of a number of small particles of granular matter, presenting the usual appearance of tubercle.

The tumour had doubtless been forming four or five years, and caused the symptoms described. The clot of blood might have been formed at the time of the convulsion three weeks before death, and might have been derived from vessels of the pia mater which were involved in the tumour.

ART. XVII.—*A New Remedy in Gonorrhœa.* By J. S. PRETTYMAN, M. D.,
of Milford, Del.

In July, 1859, while narrowly observing the effects of oil of erigeron administered in a fearful hæmoptysis, I was led to suspect that it would prove a useful remedy in the treatment of gonorrhœa. Acting upon this presumption, I immediately commenced giving it to a patient then under my care, in whose case all the vaunted specifics had most signally failed. He improved at once, and was speedily cured. Since that date I have prescribed it in about fifty cases, with unvarying success. It arrests the discharge in about 72 hours, and effects a cure in from six to eight days. I do not recommend it as a specific in all cases, but design merely to bring it to the notice of the profession as an exceedingly valuable medicine in this disease. Of course

all scientific medical practice is based upon the well-known pathological condition of the structures involved, and this is our unerring guide. When, in recent cases, the urethral inflammation is severe, my plan is to precede the remedy with a full dose of some active hydragogue. A good formula is: R.—Pulv. senna ℥ij; pulv. jalapa ℥j; pulv. aromaticus gr. x. M. Add a gill of boiling water and a teaspoonful of sugar, and, when sufficiently cool, agitate, and swallow at a dose. As soon as this operates, give ten drops of the oil on sugar, and three hours later a full dose of spts. æther. nit. in infus. althea, and so on every three hours alternately until the urethral irritation is allayed. Then leave off the latter, and continue the oil until the cure is complete. If the case is not recent, or there is but little urethral irritation, the oil alone is sufficient.

I have used it also in combination with copaiba and other articles, and found such preparations to answer a good purpose, but no better than the oil alone.

The oil which I use is reputed to be that of the *Erigeron Canadense*; but I presume that from the *Philadelphicum* is equal, if not superior, for this purpose.

ART. XVIII.—*Gunshot Wound of the Bladder; Recovery.* By ISRAEL B. WASHBURN, M. D., late Surgeon 46th Ind. Vol. Inf., now of Star City, Indiana.

SAMUEL STUART, private of Co. B, 46th Ind. Vol. Inf., who is "temperate in all things," and enjoyed perfect health, was wounded in a skirmish near Fort Pemberton, Miss., March 11, 1863, during the Yazoo Pass expedition. The ball entered the abdominal cavity immediately above the right pubic bone near the symphysis, passing backwards and downwards through the fundus of the bladder, making its exit through the great sacro-ischiatic notch of the corresponding side. The shock was very great, but he finally rallied after the free exhibition of whiskey and morphia. The prognosis of all the surgeons present was that he would die. The urine flowed from the anterior and posterior openings at the same time, saturating his clothes and bedding. Cold water-dressings were all that were applied up to the sixth day, when he was sent to general hospital at Helena, Arkansas.

12th day. He is doing well; the posterior opening has closed, and the anterior is closing rapidly. I did not see him again until in June, 1864, in the Veteran Reserve Corps, at Indianapolis. He looked the very picture of health, but he said that he was troubled with shortness of breath upon the slightest exertion; otherwise he considered himself entirely sound, and wished to return to the "old regiment."

TRANSACTIONS OF SOCIETIES.

ART. XIX.—*Summary of the Proceedings of the Pathological Society of Philadelphia.*

1866. Jan. 10th. *Vesical Calculus*.—Dr. WILLIAM PEPPER presented the specimen and made the following remarks, in connection with the case from which it was derived :—

William F. Williams, æt. 21, was admitted to surgical ward of the Penn. Hospital on December 4, 1865, to undergo an operation for relief of a vesical calculus. He was a native of Fredericksburg, Virginia, a locality where calculous disease appears to be of moderate frequency, and has suffered from the symptoms of vesical calculus for 17 years, or since the age of 4 years. He has been frequently sounded in past years, and the presence of a stone clearly made out ; but his parents have never been willing to have him undergo lithotomy. All of the rational symptoms usual in cases of calculus have existed here, as frequent micturition, vesical irritation referred to the end of the penis, sudden interruptions of the stream of urine, urine fetid and frequently alkaline, retraction of testicles, &c. His general health has suffered at times considerably for years past ; but during the last six months the symptoms have been growing more threatening ; he has lost flesh and strength, and although able to be about, has fallen into a condition of profound mental depression, with, probably, impairment of his intellectual faculties. He has been compelled to urinate nearly every ten minutes, day and night, and for hours would sit holding his penis with both hands, bewailing his sufferings. On admission it was determined to operate speedily for his relief. An examination of the urine showed it to be highly alkaline, containing a small amount of albumen, and depositing abundantly urate of soda with crystals of triple phosphate, considerable amount of granular matter, and a moderate number of pus corpuscles. There was tenderness on pressure over the bladder, and the penis was greatly hypertrophied from constant irritation, but there were no symptoms which did not seem fairly explicable by such long-standing cystic disease. He was sounded on Wednesday, Dec. 6th, and the existence of a calculus confirmed, and on Saturday, Dec. 10th, Dr. Morton performed the usual operation of lateral lithotomy on the left side. The stone, which was of the size of a pigeon's egg and weighed 5v, was successfully removed, without any notable hemorrhage.

Within 24 hours after the operation the patient had a chill of moderate severity, followed by a marked hot stage and a slight sweat. Sunday night, 36 hours after operation, he had a second, and a very slight one again early on Monday morning. The wound in the perineum looked very healthy, the urine passing through it freely, and in the intervals between the chills he seemed so well that it was hoped they might proceed from malaria, and he was consequently ordered anti-periodic doses of quiniæ sulph. with moderate diet and a febrifuge mixture. On Monday, as his bowels had

not been opened for several days, an enema was administered which provoked two discharges, but was followed by slight hemorrhage from the wound. The chills were not repeated, but on Tuesday he complained severely of pain in the region of bladder, increased by pressure. There was decided tympany, but no marked tenderness over upper part of abdomen; nor were the general symptoms those of peritonitis, as the pulse was but 82, the surface inclining to be cool and relaxed, the tongue only moderately dry, and the face, though haggard, not anxious and pinched. The urine could not be collected as it dribbled through the perineal wound, but the total quantity did not seem very deficient. There was a tumour easily detectable by pressure over the pubis, which seemed to be the bladder distended; but as very little urine escaped upon introducing a catheter either through the urethra or perineum, it was attributed to suppuration in or around the walls of the bladder. The abdomen was leeched, and subsequently protected by a warm poultice, and a moderate amount of stimulus given.

On Wednesday morning symptoms of uræmia began to be developed, occasional wandering delirium with attempts to get out of bed, pulse more slow, although much weaker, surface cool, pupils moderately dilated and sluggish, occasional hiccough and vomiting. By noon on the day following, he was in a state of almost complete uræmic coma, although when pressure was made over bladder he would groan and move uneasily. He lingered in this state until 4 P. M. of Friday Dec. 16th, six days after operation, the radial and tibial pulsations being imperceptible for some hours before heart ceased to act.

Post-mortem three hours after death.—Abdominal viscera alone could be examined. Upon cutting through the abdominal walls, quite a large collection of thick yellow pus was found overlying the bladder, in part in the subperitoneal connective tissue of the abdominal wall, and in part in the connective tissue surrounding neck of bladder and lower part of the rectum. In the pelvic fascia the pus was so mixed with blood as to be grumous and sanious. The bladder was enlarged, its external surface rough from the adhering bands of thickened, tough connective tissue. Its walls were very greatly thickened, in some parts measuring three-quarters of an inch, so that the cavity was rather contracted, and in addition was encroached upon by the rugæ of the mucous membrane which were thick and very deep. The mucous membrane was coated with a yellowish-gray, or in places greenish-gray, rather friable pseudo-membranous deposit, containing, in all probability, considerable amount of the urinary salts. The prostate gland was incised in an oblique direction, from above downwards and from right to left; the line of incision made a very obtuse angle, each branch being rather less than three-quarters of an inch in length. Upon dissecting out the kidneys and ureters, they were found to present very marked differences. The right kidney was of about the ordinary size, $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length by 3 in breadth; its capsule was thickened in places, in others much thinned, and in one point perforated by an abscess which had discharged itself thus externally, infiltrating the loose fat and connective tissue with a sanious pus. The external surface of the kidney was irregular and much discoloured, and upon palpating any of the discoloured points, a distinct sense of fluctuation was obtained. Upon laying the kidney open, extensive suppuration was found to have taken place in the secreting structure of the organ. The greater part of the calyces and infundibula were destroyed with the renal structure adjacent, and then, radiating from this large abscess, there were

a number of smaller ones, involving especially the cones, and extending to the capsule of the kidney, so that with the exception of small patches of cortical structure separating these abscesses, the entire secreting structure of the organ had disappeared. These abscesses were generally round, had smooth walls, but were not lined with any distinct fibrous wall. Toward the pelvis of the kidney the parts were coated with a layer somewhat similar to that lining the bladder. The structure about the pelvis could hardly be recognized as renal by microscopic examination, consisting of a great amount of granular debris, with occasional fibrous bands, and in but very few points could the disintegrated remains of renal tubules be recognized. The field was so much cleared up by addition of acetic acid, that the tissues were probably incrustated with the urinary salts.

The cells of the most healthy parts, the remaining cortical structure, were large and granular, and the Malpighian bodies opaque and also granular. Some of the tubules were large, with their epithelium apparently loose; whilst others were narrower, with smaller and more compact cells; there were great numbers of free cells and free nuclei, with much granular matter, no marked increase of fibrous tissue and very little oil, and a few pigment granules. It seemed probable, from several examinations, that among the tubes which were largest, and whose epithelial cells were large, swollen, opaque, and granular, and either lying loose in the tube or with interspaces between each other on the tubular membrane, there was a marked tendency to be fragmentary and to have much granular matter mixed with them.

The *right* ureter was much dilated, so that about three inches below kidney its circumference was more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch; its wall was also much thickened, and upon its inner surface, roughened and discoloured from effects of long-standing inflammation. A microscopic examination of the fluid contained in this ureter showed very numerous blood corpuscles, pus cells, a little black pigment, crystals of the triple phosphate, numerous granular epithelial cells from ureter, and a few bodies resembling fragments of granular tube-casts. There was no calculus, even of minute size, either in kidney or ureter.

In striking contrast to this almost disorganized gland, we find the *left* kidney presenting us with an equally remarkable *increase* of secreting tissue. Its long diameter measured seven inches, its transverse $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The capsule was smooth and apparently healthy, excepting in two places where it was separated from the kidney by a thin layer of pus, the result of superficial ulceration of the cortical structure. Upon making a section of the kidney the hypertrophy was found to affect all portions of its structure, the fibrous tissue of the pelvis, infundibula, and calyces, as well as the cones and cortical portion. Its colour was somewhat lighter than normal, as if anæmic; its consistence was healthy, excepting in one place, near the upper extremity of the organ where to about the depth of three-quarters of an inch the tissue was harder and more yellowish than in other parts. Its ureter showed no sign of inflammation and was but moderately enlarged, its circumference not being one-third that of the right ureter; for about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch from bladder, however, it was more dilated than above, but at that distance there was so marked a contraction of the calibre, produced by a fold of membrane, that a match could scarcely be passed through. Microscopic examination of the left kidney showed the renal cells to be very large and somewhat granular, but with clear nuclei; the tubules also large and slightly cloudy, one of them from the cortical portion measured

$\frac{1}{210}$ of an inch in width; the Malpighian bodies were also much larger than normal. Very little oil was seen.

There were no signs of peritonitis in any portion of the abdomen. The abdominal viscera appeared healthy, with exception of the spleen, which was about thrice the normal size, quite firm, and contained ordinary elements, with a little granular pigment.

Tumours of the Larynx.—Dr. HARLAN read the following report in reference to the case communicated by Dr Ellis, November 22d, last:—With the exception of a few records of isolated cases, scarcely any attention seems to have been given to morbid growths in the larynx, until a case of successful extirpation by means of laryngotomy by Professor Ehrmann, of Strasburg, made a good deal of stir in the medical world, and the subsequent publication of his monograph (*Histoire des polypes du larynx*) in 1850, gave the subject a permanent and important place in medical literature. This work, which is a large folio with fine plates, gives descriptions of some thirty cases, and may be considered as containing all that was worthy of record in connection with the subject up to the date of its publication.

Horace Green, of New York, in his book on *Polypi of the Larynx, and Edema of the Glottis*, published in 1852, says: "We have now collected all, or nearly all, the well-authenticated histories of this disease, and the entire number amounts to some thirty-nine or forty cases only; of these, seven or eight have been observed in our own country." In the following year, Dr. Gurdon Buck (*Transactions of the American Medical Association*) collected forty-two cases in tabular form. Dr. Green, in speaking of new formations in the larynx as a rare disease, says: "So, at least, it has been considered, and yet the author does not hesitate to express the opinion, and leave it to future experience to confirm or invalidate that foreign growths have occurred in the opening of the air passages, in many instances, when their presence was neither suspected nor discovered; and that if the attention of the profession should by any means be directed to this subject, it will be found that the existence of polypus and other excrescences in these passages is an occurrence taking place much more frequently than has been supposed by medical practitioners." The attention of the profession has since been directed to the subject by means of the laryngoscope and the more active and general interest in diseases of the throat, and the above opinion has been most amply confirmed.

Czermak, in some "Observations on Tumours of the Larynx" (*Med. Times and Gazette*, June 7, 1862), says: "Three years ago I published the first diagnosis of laryngeal polypus made by means of the laryngeal mirror, and since then I have so often made similar laryngoscopical discoveries, that in my pamphlet on the laryngeal mirror, I was able to enunciate the proposition that such pathological alteration occurs much more frequently than has been hitherto believed. With the rapidly spreading use, however, of the laryngeal mirror, the cases of new formations in the larynx multiplied to such a degree that some of the leading authorities 'could not repress a fear that laryngoscopy at present overrates the frequency of new formations in the larynx, and describes every swelling that exists there as a new formation.' * * * * Though unable to answer for the assertions of other observers, who have confirmed the facts I have pointed out, though not wishing to deny the possibility of errors by hasty and insufficient examinations, and in spite of the contradiction in which my above-quoted proposition finds itself with the previous experience of surgeons and pathological ana-

tomists, I must maintain its absolute validity against all objections. If we were to eliminate as doubtful or inaccurate a great part of those observations on laryngeal polypi which have been recorded since I introduced the laryngoscope, still there would remain a mass of unimpeachable and rigidly demonstrated observations. * * * * I here repeat that the fact of the greater frequency of new formations in the larynx, first declared by myself and confirmed by the observations of Von Lewin and others, must be admitted as universally as it has been hitherto universally held that these pathological formations are amongst the rarest of morbid alterations in the larynx."

In the Transactions of the London Pathological Society (from 1848 to 1864) there are records of more than thirty cases of tumours of the larynx, beside a number of cancerous growths, in many of which other parts were involved, and which seem hardly to belong to the present subject; and I have met with so many cases in the transactions of societies, monographs, and lectures on the laryngoscope, &c., that I have given up in despair my intention to collect them.

An interesting point in the consideration of this subject is the means and the prospect of surgical treatment. In his monograph on the *Throat and Windpipe*, published in 1860, Gibb recommends that tumours of the larynx should be "got rid of by opening that cavity," as "it is wholly out of the question to effect their removal through the glottis," and adds, "We have the experience of several accurate observers to show that the larynx may be freely opened and such tumours removed with the most perfect safety." He acknowledges, however, that "it must be confessed, that tumours and polypi of the throat and larynx offer a wide and complicated field for study." He has himself been one of the most active workers in this field, and among the first to demonstrate the incorrectness of his statement in reference to the possibility of operating through the glottis. The famous case of Ehrmann, previously alluded to, is given in full by Dr. Green (polypi of the larynx), who says in reference to it: "Several attempts have been made by different surgeons to remove these excrescences by laryngotomy; but in no instance has the operation proved successful except in the above case observed and recorded by Professor Ehrmann." Dr. Green, in an extremely interesting case, succeeded, after repeated and persevering efforts, in grasping a polypus of the larynx during its instantaneous protrusion through the glottis, and excising it with the most happy result. He also reports the cure of another case by cauterization. Dr. Gurdon Buck operated by laryngotomy three times in the case of a lady aged fifty-one, with effect of prolonging her life for more than a year.

The introduction of the laryngoscope has influenced the treatment as well as the diagnosis of this disease. Johnson, of King's College, in a lecture on the use of this instrument (*Lancet*, 1864), says: "Perhaps the greatest triumph of treatment by the aid of the laryngoscope has been the removal of tumours, polypi, and warty growths from the interior of the larynx. This feat has been accomplished now in numerous cases and with the most happy results." A number of these cases may be found reported in the *Lancet* and *Medical Times and Gazette*, principally by Mackenzie and Gibb who have each invented an instrument for the purpose, the former a forceps and the latter a wire ecraseur. Dr. Henry B. Sands, of the New York Hospital, in a valuable paper in the *New York Medical Journal* for May, 1865, reports a case of cancer of the larynx successfully removed by laryngotomy, and gives a table of fifty cases

of tumours of the larynx treated by operation, with a full history of the operation up to date, a comparison of the two methods of performing it, &c. Eleven of these fifty operations were performed by external excision, and the rest through the mouth. But three proved fatal—two of the former and one of the latter; and the aggregate of success in the results was such as to show that the operation is not only justifiable and encouraging but in many cases imperative.

In reference to the *cause* of these growths, I know of nothing to oppose the statement of Dr. Green, that as yet their origin is unknown.

In the present case the existence of secondary syphilis in the mother at the time of the child's birth, has naturally suggested the question whether the tumour, that brought its life to such an early close, had its origin in a hereditary taint. For light upon this subject, we turn first to the statistics of the disease. Dr. Buck gives syphilis as the probable cause in only one of the forty-two cases recorded in his table; in two of them, however, one by Dr. Reuf and the other by Rayer, syphilis is assigned as the cause by the original reporters. They are both in Ehrmann's monograph. There is a plate of the former described as "vegetations of the laryngeal cavity" communicated by Reuf, and considered by him to be syphilitic, but no history. The latter is from Rayer's *Atlas of Skin Diseases*. Under the head of "Syphilides," one of the plates (Pl. XIX., Fig. xi.), represents a larynx obstructed with vegetations which are referred to by Ehrmann as "probably venereal." In looking over a large number of cases of morbid growths in the larynx, recorded as post-mortem observations or diagnosed by means of the laryngoscope, I find but five others in which syphilis was suspected, though I have been not a little surprised to find so many cases recorded without a history of any kind. Two of the five cases referred to are by Czermak (monograph on the laryngoscope). One was of an old Rabbi "suspected to have communicated syphilis to several children in practising the operation of circumcision," though he denied the charge; and the other "observed in a huntsman aged forty-one years, suspected of syphilis." The third was reported by Gibbs (*Medical Times and Gazette*, 1863) a case of "foliated growths in the true and false vocal cords in a young man aged twenty-four, with a syphilitic history," and the other two are in Dr. Mason's table recorded as "syphilitic(?)." None of those cases are at all conclusive; they only show that tumours of the larynx, like any other disease, may occur in connection with syphilis.

The present specimen has the appearance of the growths so frequently referred to as "wartlike excrescences," and the microscopical examination, made by Dr. Wm. Pepper, shows that such is its character. "It consists of epidermoid scales arranged in curved lamina, compressed with small amount of fibrous tissue interlacing and some shining granular matter." The only recognized syphilitic term that could be applied to it is "condylomata," or "venereal warts." There is an unfortunate confusion in the use of the term "condylomata," which is often applied to "mucous patches" or "tubercles." For instance, a case reported by Mackenzie as "syphilitic condylomata of the larynx" is plainly one of mucous patches. While the latter are among the most frequent forms of constitutional syphilis, it is thought by good authority, as Bumstead and others, that true warts are never strictly venereal, and that their connection with syphilis is merely accidental. Rayer (*Diseases of Skin*, p. 82) speaks of excrescences as due to a "morbid thickening of the corion, vascular rete, and epidermic lamellæ, and to increase of size in the papillæ of the skin," and says, "These excrescences

are of two kinds, syphilitic and non-syphilitic. To distinguish them attention must be paid to the situation in which they are evolved, to the previous state of the surface in which they have appeared, to their progress and to the coincidence or otherwise of syphilitic symptoms generally, rather than to the physical character of the growths themselves. Hunter and several other writers have denied the existence of any excrescences truly syphilitic in their nature. * * * * Numerous cases leave no doubt of the fact that certain excrescences are owing to the syphilitic cachexia, and that they sprout without evident inflammation." Corvisart (*Essai sur les Maladies du Cœur*, t. 8, p. 227) speaks of excrescences "of a venereal appearance" on the mitral valves of persons formerly affected with venereal disease. Laennec also mentions several similar cases, but thinks there is no adequate ground for speaking of them as syphilitic in their origin (*Traité de l'Auscultation Médiate*, t. 2, p. 618).

Other writers on diseases of the heart mention such cases without asserting their syphilitic nature. The idea of a venereal origin seems to have been associated with these formations, chiefly from their frequent occurrence upon or near the genital organs, where, Ricord says, they are a very frequent source of error among those who are accustomed to consider any affection of those parts as necessarily venereal (*Iconographie*).

That constitutional syphilis may frequently be the remote or accidental cause of warty tumours of the larynx is extremely probable. Professor Gross (*Surgery*) says: "Warty excrescences, similar to those of the vulva and penis, are sometimes found in the larynx. * * * * These vegetations are usually associated with thickening of the lining membrane of the tube, and are nearly always dependent upon a syphilitic taint of the system." Rokitsky, under the head of "laryngeal tumours," speaks of "condylomatous excrescences occurring upon or near an ulcerated base," as "most probably of a syphilitic nature." In such cases the growths are found in company with decided marks of inflammation of the mucous membrane, without which I believe there is not the slightest evidence that they ever occur as a result of constitutional syphilis. I believe that such tumours, when found in venereal subjects, may be fairly considered to be either an accidental complication, an hypertrophy of the epithelium resulting from the irritation of repeated attacks of laryngitis, or a new growth formed by the deposition of lymph and its subsequent transformation into fibrous tissue. In the conflict of authorities in regard to the venereal character of warty growths and the meagreness of details bearing upon this point in recorded cases, it is impossible to say positively that this tumour is or is not syphilitic. But when we consider the youth of the subject, its good general health, its freedom from all appearance of syphilitic cachexia, and the entire absence of any sign of inflammation of the lining membrane of the trachea, I think it may be safely asserted that the probabilities of the case and the weight of authority are on the side of the negative.

Feb. 14th. *Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis*. Dr. HUTCHINSON gave the history of the case as follows:—

Mary McCabe, aged about 50 years, married, by occupation a nurse, was admitted into the Episcopal Hospital on the afternoon of Tuesday, Jan. 30, 1866.

She appears to have been in her usual health up to the Sunday preceding her admission, and was engaged at that time in nursing a severe case of fever, said to be typhoid; on that day she complained of a slight soreness

in the last phalanx of the index finger of the left hand, but she continued at her post until the next day, when she was too ill to fulfil her duties.

The following are the notes of Dr. Watson, the resident physician, made at the time of her admission. The patient walked up to the third story of the building, seemed perfectly conscious, but is indisposed to talk much; complains of pain through her body and of great difficulty of breathing; the face is pale; nostrils dilated; respiration superficial and frequent; pulse 140 and feeble; skin dry, but only moderately warm; the *calor mordax*, of typhus being entirely absent; the pupils very much contracted; tongue moist, but coated with a whitish fur; auscultation revealed the presence of sonorous and sibilant rales throughout the chest, and at one point well marked crepitation, at which point there was dulness on percussion. The decubitus was dorsal, the head being at the same time retracted. She was ordered f3ss of solution of morphia, and a wineglassful of milk punch every three hours. At midnight she seemed asleep.

Jan. 31. No great change in her condition; pulse not quite so frequent, 112 to the minute; a few petechiæ to be seen upon examining chest and abdomen; turpentine and muriatic acid to be given internally; the amount of stimulus to be doubled, and counter-irritation to the chest to be made by means of turpentine stupes. The resident physician was directed to give her quinia in large doses, if improvement did not take place before evening. There was a small collection of blood and pus under the cuticle around the nail of the index finger of the left hand, which was evacuated and then treated with a poultice; there was also slight redness of the back of the hand, but the lymphatics of the arms were not involved. The turpentine failing to produce redness of the skin, later in the day mustard was applied and kept on for over an hour without producing the desired effect. Dry cups were then applied to the whole surface of back and sides of thorax, and under their influence respiration became more easy and less frequent, falling from 50 to 40. At 7 P. M., the effect of the dry cupping having passed off, the cups were again applied with the effect of producing as marked relief as before.

The inflammation of finger subsiding, and has evidently nothing to do with her disease.

Feb. 1. Patient is evidently much worse; face pale with a bluish hue; pupils exceedingly contracted; breathing very laboured; extremities cold; refuses to take stimulants and food, and seems unable to swallow; pressure on the back of the neck elicits a cry of pain; no fresh petechiæ on abdomen.

Heat to be applied to feet, turpentine to the chest, and an injection of milk punch and 12 grs. of sulphate of quinia to be administered. The injection came away two hours later, and brought away some yellow feces—it was repeated with the same effect.

Death took place at 4 P. M., a little less than two days after her admission, and about four after her seizure.

Autopsy 18 hours after death. Rigor mortis not well marked.

Upon opening the head an unusual injection of the veins of the meninges together with opacity of these membranes was observed, and on attempting to remove the brain four or five fluid ounces of serum escaped. A small quantity of effusion was found in the ventricles, but the whole of the brain was in an oedematous condition, the serum exuding upon the slightest pressure. In the pleural cavities a slight effusion had taken place; on the right side there were old pleuritic adhesions; in the middle of the right

lung, corresponding to the point where dulness and crepitation had been noticed, a low form of hepatization of the lung existed, and other similar points were found throughout both lungs.

The heart was healthy, but presented a large amount of fat deposited in its walls; a very small fibrinous clot occupied the left ventricle, with which exception the blood was everywhere found fluid. The liver and kidney had both undergone slight fatty degeneration.

The intestines were carefully examined, but no ulceration of the patches was discovered. At the ileo-cæcal valve a large patch was found slightly elevated, having in it a slight development of pigment in points.

On the uterus were a number of pedunculated tumours which under the microscope presented a fibrous structure. The ovaries were undergoing the cystic degeneration.

A microscopic examination of the blood showed the red corpuscles to be crenated and to have no tendency to aggregate themselves in rolls.

Hepatic Abscess.—Dr. GEO. PEPPER exhibited the specimen and read the following account of the case from which it was derived.

George Robinson, æt. 50, colored—married—occupation privy cleaner, in which capacity he has worked for thirty years. Both parents healthy. Has had seven children, only one of whom is now alive, two having died of phthisis pulmonalis, and one, a daughter of twenty-eight, of carcinoma uteri; the others did not survive early infancy, being exceedingly delicate.

His own health has been good until the last year, although he has been much exposed to cold and wet, and addicted to the excessive use of stimuli. For the last year his health has been gradually failing; appetite very poor, and accompanied by various dyspeptic symptoms; vertigo, flatulence, constipation; bowels being rarely moved except by medicine; the passages being normal in appearance however; a frequent feeling of nausea, but never vomiting; violent headaches; no pain or uneasiness, save from the symptoms above enumerated in the abdomen; urine of normal quantity and quality; has never suffered from epistaxis; but about six months ago he suddenly gulped up a considerable quantity of florid blood, since which time he has had no return of it.

Dec. 13, 1865. For the last four weeks he has been obliged to cease from work on account of feeling particularly depressed and wretched; vertigo much increased; constant nausea, but no vomiting; bowels obstinately confined; headache increased in severity; griping pains in the abdomen, located around umbilicus; dull pain over region of liver, not constant, however; indistinct and irregular rigors; not followed by fever and sweating. His whole appearance is that of a man worn down by exhausting chronic disease; emaciation very great; skin harsh and dry; tongue heavily coated with a thick yellowish fur; breath heavy and offensive; conjunctiva slightly yellowish, but not more so than is frequently seen in negroes; no appearance of jaundice. Heart sounds feeble and lacking in character; respiratory sounds normal; pulse about 80, feeble. No pain on pressure over the abdomen; no tumour could be detected by palpation; the abdominal walls very rigid owing to firm contraction of the muscles. The percussion dulness of the liver much increased, extending from just below the nipple downwards about 9 inches, and transversely reaching considerably to the left of the sternum, touching in the median line the umbilicus. There was no ascites, or apparent disease of any other organ.

The urine was normal in quantity and of a reddish salmon colour, deposit-

ing upon standing nearly one-third of its bulk; sp. gr. 1022; very acid reaction; clears up by heat and NO_3 , but only partially by either alone; no appearance of bile upon being tested by NO_3 ; on the addition of $\frac{1}{2}$ bulk of SO_3 it became of a clear deep claret color; the sediment consisted of granular and globular urates and granular matter.

R.—Sodæ bicarb. $\mathfrak{z}\text{j}$; Ext. taraxaci $\mathfrak{z}\text{ij}$; Tinct. rhei $\mathfrak{f}\mathfrak{z}\text{vj}$; Aq. cinna-momi $\mathfrak{f}\mathfrak{z}\text{vj}$. S. $\mathfrak{f}\mathfrak{z}\text{ss}$ ter die; mustard poultices over the abdomen; milk and lime-water for the nausea; the bowels to be opened by spr. rhei aromat. and ol. ricini.

15th. Apparent exacerbations taking place in the afternoon, accompanied by indistinct rigors. The sulphate of quinia was ordered in anti-periodic doses, and the tincture of the chloride of iron gtt. xx, thrice daily. The pain over the liver not being relieved by the mustard, a blister (4×4) was ordered; the remainder of the treatment continued.

He continued in very much the same condition until the 20th, gradually becoming weaker; the indistinct rigors continuing until that day, when, at four P. M., he had a very decided chill, followed by a profuse warm sweat. The intelligence still remained very good, but there was an increasing dislike to conversation, he would lie for hours in a dreamy condition, never speaking except to ask for what he desired. The emaciation proceeded very rapidly, and there was a total disgust for all kinds of nourishment. The bowels were opened every day or two, the passages being of normal appearance, though offensive. No pain.

25th. Weaker; rather more heavy and dull; dozes during the day, but restless at night. Complains of no pain or uneasiness. Tongue heavily coated; bowels confined; pulse 108, weak and compressible. Increase nourishment and stimuli; bowels to be opened by enema. The rigors have not been repeated since the 20th; the skin still very harsh and dry.

28th. Weaker; pulse 108, weak, compressible; mouth and lips dry and covered with hardened secretions; tongue dry and brown in the centre, protruded with a trembling motion. The abdominal walls more relaxed, allowing the liver to be felt; it seemed granular, but this feeling is very unsatisfactory, as the relaxation is but partial. There is no pain felt on pressure over the liver; the percussion dulness the same. The abdominal veins were enlarged, and the current reversed. Ordered gentian and lactate of iron.

29th. Rather stronger; taken nourishment more readily; tongue dry and brownish; pulse weak; very restless yesterday afternoon, but has been much quieter since; complains of no discomfort; urine more clear.

31st. Yesterday he became rapidly weaker; pulse being 112; extremities cool; power of deglutition impaired. To-day sinking rapidly; pulse 112, thready; respirations 36 per minute, shallow and rapid; voice husky; power of deglutition much impaired; urine still passed freely; the mouth and lips very dry; tongue dry and brown, extremities cool. Nutritious enema were ordered yesterday, but neglected.

Jan. 1, 1866. Died at 7 A. M. Remained in much the same condition as yesterday until the end.

Post-mortem twenty-seven hours after death.—Body much emaciated, the abdominal walls had very little fat on them. On opening the abdomen the liver was seen in situ much enlarged, extending down into the right lumbar region, and partially occupying the umbilical and left hypochondriac regions; it was of a dark brownish-red colour, smooth, present-

ing no appearance of granulation. On attempting to remove it the hand penetrated into a large abscess, seated on the right lobe, causing the discharge of fully Oij of a dark grumous fluid, varying in shade from a yellowish-gray to green and red; these latter being apparently caused by staining with bile and blood. The fluid contained much ropy gelatinous material, like the contents of certain ovarian cysts. The liver had formed no adhesions, the peritoneum being smooth over its whole surface, though considerably discoloured over the most superficial part of the abscess. The organ, when removed from the body, and the abscess entirely emptied of its contents, weighed 4 lbs. 14 oz.; it measured 9 inches in a vertical, and 11 inches in a transverse direction. The cavity occupied nearly the entire enlarged right lobe, excepting about $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches of its anterior margin, as also the lobulus quadratus and spigelii. The cavity was not limited by any firm wall or membrane, but consisted of softened hepatic structure covered with a grayish-yellow shreddy material. The left lobe appeared healthy in structure with the exception of a patch of a purplish colour, nodular in appearance and of irregular shape, about $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch in diameter, seated on the left posterior edge of the lobe; when incised it gave exit to a bloody fluid, and apparently consisted of a clot.

The gall-bladder was distended with healthy looking bile, the gall-ducts pervious, though rather enlarged and thickened; no biliary calculi; no obstruction of the portal vein, nor were there any evidences of thrombosis.

Stomach—Congested and contracted; no abrasion of the mucous membrane.

Intestines—The small intestine much contracted; the duodenum less so than either the jejunum or ileum; not congested; there was no ulceration or abrasion of the mucous membrane; no glandular enlargement; the intestine contained a considerable quantity of mucus tinged yellow. The large intestine contained a considerable amount of hardened feces, and was slightly contracted.

Pancreas—Healthy. *Spleen* small, soft, but apparently healthy. *Kidneys* healthy, but anæmic, the capsule of the left one much thickened; no effusion into the abdomen; bladder empty and contracted; mesenteric glands not enlarged.

Thorax—Lungs perfectly healthy, slightly congested posteriorly; adherent to the diaphragm by a few old adhesions. Bronchial glands not enlarged. *Heart* flabby; walls thinned; valves competent, foramen ovale closed. Aorta slightly dilated, slight calcareous deposit on the walls of the aorta above the valves. Pulmonary arteries healthy.

Heart filled with coagulated blood, many of the clots firmly interlaced among the columnæ carneæ, some of them being white and blanched.

Microscopic Examination.—The gelatinous grayish-yellow part of the discharge consisted of granular matter, granular cells (not numerous), blood corpuscles, oil globules, a few hepatic cells. On the addition of acetic acid the granular cells became less distinct, and the entire field assumed a delicate fibrillated appearance from the coagulation of the mucoid substance.

The stringy material attached to the walls of the abscess was of a grayish colour and more tenacious consistence; it consisted of granular cells, granular matter, oil globules, delicate fusiform cells, forming a species of areolæ, like dense connective tissue, and containing in the meshes a few granular and cloudy hepatic cells.

The mass in the left lobe, of a purplish colour, showed blood corpuscles, but very slightly altered, and a few granular hepatic cells.

Left lobe, the hepatic structure apparently perfectly healthy.

Feb. 28. Case of Obscure Nervous Disease.—Dr. JOHN ASHHURST, Jr., read the following paper: This case, which presents several points of no little interest, is related more on account of the indirect lessons it conveys as to pathology, diagnosis, and treatment, than as affording any especial instructions for practice in similar contingencies. It should be premised that this history is compiled from very full notes, taken at the bedside of the patient, by Dr. Bodine, the senior house-surgeon of the hospital.

Thomas Kelley, a boy of 14 years, was admitted to the Episcopal Hospital on Wednesday evening, August 16th, 1865. The following imperfect account of his case was subsequently obtained from himself and his friends: On August 3d (nearly two weeks before entering the hospital), he fell from a wagon, receiving two wounds, one over the right temporal region, and another on the left side of the head. These wounds were healing when, on August 15th, in attempting to go down stairs, he fell down the entire flight of nine steps. He received from this fall a contusion over the right eye, and had some bleeding from the mouth. He stated that he was momentarily stunned by the fall, and that the first thing he noticed afterwards was a sharp pain extending from the back of the head down between the shoulders. When brought to the hospital on the following evening, he suffered from occasional violent and spasmodic tetanoid twitchings; his head was thrown back between his shoulders, his mouth firmly closed, and the muscles of his back and lower extremities rigid. He screamed violently, and was so restless that he could not be kept covered in bed. His mouth was drawn to the left side; he could not close the right eyelids, and the whole right side of the face appeared paralyzed. His pulse beat 120 strokes in the minute, and he had involuntary evacuations from both bladder and rectum.

August 17. I saw the patient for the first time at my morning visit on this day, and found his condition the same as above described. His treatment was established as follows: He is to have a wineglassful of milk every other hour, and a wineglassful of beef essence at the intervening hours; he is to take, besides, one-eighth of a grain of the extract of cannabis indica, three times a day. He is to be kept quiet in bed, with the room darkened, and is to have an ice-bag kept constantly to his head.

18th. His condition is not perceptibly changed; pulse 112. The cannabis indica to be given in quarter of a grain doses thrice daily, and his treatment in other respects to be the same.

19th. Pulse 116; I was struck to-day with the intense heat of skin, amounting to that described as "calor mordicans." R.—Ext. cannab. indicæ gr. $\frac{1}{4}$, four times daily. R.—Hydrarg. chlorid. mit. gr. $\frac{1}{6}$; Pulv. opii, gr. $\frac{1}{4}$, every fourth hour.

20th. He has had a convulsive seizure which lasted about three minutes. Heat of skin in axilla 105° Fahr.; pulse 120.

21st. The cannabis indica is to be stopped to-day; in other respects his treatment to be the same.

22d He complains of intense pain in his legs; he has had a very restless night, and was very noisy. The same distortion of face and fixedness of the jaws continues as at first. Pulse 104. He swallows with difficulty,

and is therefore ordered a teacupful of milk, with a fluidounce of whiskey, every fourth hour, by injection.

23d. Pulse 92—100, and feeble; respiration thirty-five in the minute; heat of skin in axilla 103° Fahr.; the left pupil is larger than the right. He is perfectly rigid, so that he can be lifted, merely by putting the hand under his head; he is not able to move his legs. His urine is scanty and with acid reaction; sp. gr. 1030. He is able to swallow more easily, but is growing thinner.

24th. Pulse 96; temperature of axilla 102° Fahr.; his face is still drawn to the left side, but he is able to partially close the right eyelids. He sleeps a little through the day; he complains of feeling cold. He has ten drops of laudanum added to each injection of whiskey and milk; the calomel and opium pills are stopped, and he is ordered ten grains of bromide of potassium three times a day.

25th. Pulse 84; respirations 32; temperature 102° Fahr.; he does not always retain his injections.

26th. Respirations 40 in the minute; the same difference in the pupils as before observed. There was some puffiness of the scalp in the right temporal region, which being incised gave exit to pus and revealed the bone denuded of periosteum beneath. The patient is very much weaker.

27th. Pulse 100; respirations 36; temperature 101° Fahr.; he says he feels very poorly; he moaned most of the night, and at times screamed violently; his toes are constantly contracted.

28th. Pulse 120; respirations 32; temperature 101° Fahr.; he is unable to swallow, wherefore 15 grains of bromide of potassium in a saturated solution are ordered to be given three times a day by hypodermic injection.

29th. Pulse 120; respirations 32; temperature 101° Fahr.; the hypodermic injection of bromide of potassium was given yesterday afternoon in the back, and this morning over the left deltoid muscle. A bed sore was found upon the occiput. He swallows better to-day, and the bromide is therefore again given by the mouth.

30th. Pulse 120; respirations 36; temperature 101° Fahr.; a copious crop of sudamina has made its appearance.

31st. Pulse 128; respirations 36; temperature 101° Fahr.; there is slightly less contortion of his face, and he can open his mouth better; the difference in the pupils is no longer perceptible.

September 1. He has less difficulty in swallowing; he takes milk, beef-essence, soup, eggs, and tea; and is always calling for something to eat different from what he has before him. His head was shaved to-day, and the bloodvessels of the scalp appear very prominent.

2d. There is scarcely any perceptible change in the patient's condition, but there seems to be a gradual failure of the powers of life. His urine and feces are passed involuntarily. His pulse to-day beat 120 strokes in the minute.

3d. There is less paralysis of the right side of the face; the respiration is quieter and less frequent; pulse 112—116; skin moist. The bromide of potassium injection over the deltoid muscle has produced an abscess which is opened.

4th. The patient continues in about the same state; he is to day placed upon a water-bed, which appears to make him more comfortable.

5th. Another abscess, having formed from the hypodermic injection in the back, is opened. He takes more food; his bowels hitherto have been

opened, although involuntarily, only once a day or once in two days ; now they are moved more frequently. Pulse 104.

6th. Pulse 100 ; breathes quietly ; takes less food, and is becoming more emaciated.

7th. He continues in about the same condition ; he is constantly crying for something to eat which is not before him. The abscesses caused by the hypodermic injections manifest no tendency to heal. The bone beneath the abscess of the right temple is dead, but does not exfoliate.

On September 8th, 9th, and 10th, his condition was not materially different ; on the night of the 11th he was very noisy.

12th. He has had diarrhœa for several days ; as his bowels are moved involuntarily, his bed-clothing has to be changed four or five times a day. He is constantly eating, and yet is becoming skeletonized.

The record of his pulse during the next few days is as follows : September 12th, 96 ; 13th, 92 ; 14th, 88 ; 15th, 80 ; 16th, 72. On the night of the 16th there was no pulse at the wrist ; the respiration was slow and laboured ; the skin growing cold.

17th, 5½ A. M. The patient is moribund ; the heart beats slowly and feebly ; respirations 10 in the minute. 6 A. M., only 7 respirations in the minute ; the skin is cold. Died at 6½ A. M.

An *autopsy* was made twenty-nine hours after death with the following results. Rigor mortis well marked ; cadaver exceedingly emaciated. The external table of the skull in the right temporal region was exposed and dead for a space one inch by half an inch in extent ; the inner table was, however, found to be healthy. The membranes of the brain presented no particularly abnormal appearances, though there was considerable pearliness of the arachnoid. The substance of the brain was much softened and presented a punctuated redness. The ventricles seemed normal. There was some congestion at the base of the brain. The spinal meninges were somewhat congested ; the cord throughout its whole extent was softened and in the cervical portion almost diffuent.

No other abnormal appearances were observed in any organ.

Two questions of considerable interest are suggested by the preceding case.

1. Could the train of morbid changes which resulted in death, have been owing to the injuries received either by the first or subsequent accident to which the patient was exposed ; or did the cerebro-spinal lesion antedate, and perhaps cause the falls, for the effects of which he was brought to the hospital ?

2. Were the tetanoid symptoms which were so prominent on the patient's admission the indications of his real condition, and were the pathological appearances found after death owing to the continuance and persistence of tetanus, or was his real disease from the beginning an inflammatory affection of the cerebro-spinal substance and membranes, and was tetanus a mere epiphenomenon ?

My own reflections upon the case would lead me to suppose that this patient suffered from cerebro-spinal softening, the result of inflammation, and from tetanus simultaneously.

Dr. William Hunt reported to the College of Physicians, in 1862, a remarkable case in which tetanus coexisted with paralysis. (*Am. Journ. Med. Sciences*, Jan. 1863, p. 82.) In the case which I have this evening brought before the Society, not only did those two apparently opposing conditions coexist, but the rigidity of spinal meningitis was superadded.

I am further inclined to think that the morbid changes in this case had actually a traumatic origin. The most serious visceral lesions occasionally accompany apparently slight injuries of the scalp; while the only cases of tetanus in Mr. Curling's table, which followed wounds of the head, were in every instance the sequel of comparatively slight lacerations or contusions.

Cystic Abscess of both Kidneys accompanied by Renal Calculi.—Dr. TYSON presented the specimen and gave the history of the case as follows:—

I. McI., aged 48, born in England, resided in this city eighteen years previous to his death. His occupation had been, at one time, that of a teacher, and later a sexton.

Always delicate, with no hereditary taint traceable. During summer previous to death, had been much prostrated by an attack of diarrhœa, obstinate in its continuance. His habits were at all times good.

The history of the present disease, in consequence of his being so short a time under notice, could be imperfectly traced; but he had for many years suffered with pain in the region of the kidneys, extending along the course of the ureters. Paroxysms of greater intensity occurred at intervals which were agonizing, causing him uncontrollably to roll upon the floor. These, according to the statement of his wife, occurred very early in life, and continued at intervals up to the date of death. They were often attended by difficult micturition and scanty urine, which apparently contained blood.

He had experienced one of these attacks the day before I saw him, which was Thursday, February 22d, 1866, when he was still suffering from dysuria, of which he was relieved by suppositories of aqueous extract of opium. His aspect was that of a man with phthisis; emaciated, dispirited, and with clear complexion. He had, however, no cough, and respiration was normal. He complained of slight nausea, which alarmed him somewhat, being quite unusual with him. He was already under tonic and stimulating treatment, which was continued.

The next day found him more prostrated, and confined to his bed. His nausea had increased, and he regurgitated rather than vomited large quantities of fluid evidently containing biliary matter. Some of the urine and vomited matter were obtained for examination. The urine was fetid, and exhibited the peculiar smoky appearance of urine containing blood. It proved to be highly albuminous, at least three-fourths of its bulk being precipitated on application of heat and nitric acid. Microscopically, there appeared blood corpuscles, and granular nucleated corpuscles, exhibiting the phenomena of pus corpuscles, and which proved to be such by their action with liquor potassæ. Few phosphatic crystals, and no oxalates were noticed. The vomited matter was principally fluid taken into the stomach, and contained biliary matter.

February 25th Prof. F. G. Smith saw him in consultation. Physical exploration revealed the superior edge of the liver as high as the right nipple, while it extended also anteriorly, and apparently inferiorly. An enlarged condition of the veins of the region of the liver, attending this apparent enlargement, led to suspicion of some disease of this organ also. Though this state of the veins appeared also on the left side.

The patient sank gradually, and by Tuesday, February 27th, uræmic poisoning manifested itself in coma, and he died at 4 P. M. of this day.

Twenty hours after death, a post-mortem was made. Body in ice, from which it was not removed to make examination. The left kidney was first

removed, and was more than twice the normal size. An abscess was ruptured in removal, and large quantities of pus flowed into the abdominal cavity, so that it was probably not seen in its state of greatest enlargement.

The secreting structure of the kidney was much intruded upon, so that but little remained to carry on its peculiar function. In the pelvis of the kidney lay a calculus as large as the end of an adult thumb, or as large as a good-sized hickory-nut.

The right kidney was next sought for. Its size may be conceived, when we say it was at first sight mistaken for the distended stomach. The bulk was made up of purulent cysts, occupying the entire kidney, none of the glandular structure of which appeared remaining. Two or more of these cysts were ruptured in removing, so that its size when exhibited to the Society was much diminished. The ureter was dilated to the diameter of the little finger, and in the same relative position with the left kidney appeared a renal calculus of about the same size as that found in the former. It was this immense mass which displaced the liver upwards and laterally, and itself caused the dulness inferiorly. The liver, however, exhibited to the naked eye no diseased appearances. Under the microscope it was somewhat fatty. Qualitative analysis showed the peripheral portion of the calculi to be made up of urates, phosphates, and oxalates—the central almost exclusively of urates. Many smaller spherical calculi were found in the cavities formed by the abscesses.

Tumour of Brain.—Dr. HUTCHINSON read the following report of the case :—

Edith Boyd, aged 13 years, a native of North Carolina, was admitted to the Children's Hospital January 17, 1865. I first saw her in June of the same year, and the notes which I took at the time are as follows :—

She is a pale, badly nourished child, totally uneducated, but possessed of a fair share of intelligence. Three years ago, the exact date she cannot remember, she was struck on the head with a piece of wood in the hands of a rebel soldier. Attempting to protect her head, she received a severe blow across the base of the middle ring and little finger of the right hand which caused a contused wound, the scar of which is still very apparent. The wound seems to have presented no unusual characters, but was rather slow in healing.

No general symptoms followed immediately after the reception of the injury, the child continuing in her usual health for two years, after that she first noticed a tendency in the right arm to be drawn in towards the side, which was followed by inability to abduct the arm, and this in its turn by entire loss of all voluntary motion at the shoulder-joint; soon after the biceps and the flexors of the wrist began to contract rigidly.

The forearm is strongly flexed upon the arm, which is in a state of extreme adduction, so that the hand, which is also flexed, rests upon the upper portion of the sternum. The hand is flexed while the fingers are separated, and so extended as to form an arch with the dorsum of the hand. The trapezius is likewise contracted, and as a consequence the whole shoulder is higher than the other. All the contracted muscles are wasted, but respond, although feebly, to galvano-electricity.

Sensation is perfect in all parts, except on the back of the hand.

In addition to the above there is partial paralysis of the right lower extremity, the foot being inverted, but there is no wasting nor contraction

of the muscles. Occasionally the mouth is drawn to the right side, but this is slight and not permanent.

She has had a convulsion which took place in February subsequently to her admission to the hospital, and consequently long after the commencement of the contractions. She denies ever having had anything of the kind previously, and there is no one else who can furnish us any information.

She seems to have had no treatment in the South; since her admission it has consisted in the administration of tonics, iodide of potassium, strychnia, and in the application of a stimulating liniment to the limb and of the cold douche to the spine.

July 1. The same treatment was continued during June with the effect of producing slight amelioration of the symptoms, the patient being now able to execute some of the movements of the arm.

15th. A few days ago I etherized the patient, but did not succeed in producing relaxation of the muscles, on the contrary, they seemed to become more rigid. Her treatment now consists in the daily application of electricity to the arm and leg, in the use of a stimulating liniment as before, and in the internal administration of tonics and of bromide of potassium, Passive motion is likewise employed.

August 1. Much good appears to have been effected by the passive motion. When I first resorted to it, the wrist could only be extended with difficulty and never without exciting a good deal of pain, and this was true to even a greater extent of the attempt to flex the fingers: the rigidity is now in both cases overcome with comparative ease, while the forearm now makes with the arm an angle considerably greater than a right angle. I have not been so successful in my attempts to produce motion at the shoulder-joint. At one time a weight was attached to the forearm in the hope that it would overcome the tonic contraction of the biceps, although some good was accomplished by its use, it was abandoned in consequence of slight ulceration.

10th. The hand is now placed in Bond's splint, which is admirably adapted to overcome the flexion of the wrist and the extension of the fingers.

September 1. Great improvement has resulted from the use of the splint, and this improvement is best illustrated by the fact that the patient is now able to pick up a small coin from the floor. Her general health has been likewise improved by the treatment pursued. Since the date of the last note I placed the right leg in a long fracture-box with the view of overcoming inversion, but no advantage seemed to follow its use. She has unfortunately taken scabies from one of the other patients, and this is accompanied by an extensive eruption of eczema, which renders necessary a suspension of all active treatment.

October 15. The eczema has disappeared. Some of the advantage gained appeared to have been lost by the discontinuance of the remedies; the former treatment is now to be resumed.

February 3. In November the case passed into the hands of one of my colleagues. About the 21st of November the child had another convulsion, which, like the first, appeared to have been epileptiform. After this she appeared to have enjoyed comparative health until January 27, 1866, when she was seized with a succession of convulsions which lasted till February 2, when she died.

The attending physicians told me that these convulsions were so violent that the patient was thrown out of bed by them, and recurred as often as

four times in an hour. After their first occurrence no interval of consciousness occurred. The convulsions affected both sides, but the right to a greater extent.

The *autopsy* was made by Drs. F. W. Lewis, S. W. Mitchell, and myself, twenty-two hours after death. The head and spinal canal were only opened. The brain generally presented the normal degree of firmness, the centre of the left anterior lobe was occupied by a hardened mass. There was a good deal of venous injection of the meninges and some serous effusion in the ventricles. The spinal cord appeared to be healthy.

Dr. S. W. Mitchell was kind enough to examine microscopically the growth found in the brain, the spinal cord, the right median nerve, and the biceps muscle. The following is his report :—

Microscopic Examination.—The centre of the left anterior cerebral lobe was occupied by a hardened mass, around which was a circle of inflamed brain tissue in some places very soft. The central mass, about as large as a walnut, did not intrude distinctly upon the convolutions above it. The circle of red softening contained broken nerve tubes, some granulation globules, and a good deal of granular matter, part of which was soluble in ether, and was therefore fatty in character. The tumour was firm, but not so hard as scirrhus growths of malignant type. It had no definite edges, and was made up of finely granular matter with rare nuclei, but neither fibres nor fusiform cells. There were no traces of walls in it nor any stains or crystals of hæmatodin. It was, I think, a growth, and not the contents of any former apoplectic cavity. The convolutions were darker than common, and like all of the brain unusually firm.

I examined the medulla oblongata with care, after the method of Schröder van der Kolk, making sections after hardening with alcohol, and soaking these sections in chloride of calcium. The tissue was uncommonly firm, but there was no fatty degeneration nor any marked interstitial albuminoid deposit. On first cutting across the medulla oblongata at the lower level of the corpora olivaria, I noted two red points in the corpora restiformia. On repeated section like points were seen in the gray matter only of all of the strands of the medulla oblongata. They proved to be minute extravasations of blood. I found no appearance of this nature in the portions of the medulla spinalis which were sent to me, and which came, I believe, from the cervical and upper dorsal region.

The biceps muscle presented the appearance, under the microscope, of advanced fatty degeneration.

REVIEWS.

ART. XX.—*A Treatise on the Principles and Practice of Medicine; designed for the Use of Practitioners and Students of Medicine.* By AUSTIN FLINT, M. D., Professor of the Principles and Practice of Medicine in the Bellevue Hospital Medical College, &c. 8vo. pp. 867. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea, 1866.

TRUE poets are born poets. Art can do but little to perfect them; and the greatest have owed but little to art. But great physicians have always been the product of slow and persevering labour in the field of nature. All teachers, from Hippocrates to the last successful explorer of the mysteries of disease, have imbibed wisdom in the tainted and oppressive atmosphere that surrounds the sick bed. There only is a corrective to be found for the imperfections of previous conclusions as to matters of fact, and there is the only ultimate court of appeal against the dogmas of theory.

Scientific intuition, except in a figurative sense, is an absurdity. To the Creator alone belongs the power of originating either matter, force, or form, or of comprehending intuitively their laws. Man reaches the extreme limit of his genius, when a law of nature governing phenomena which are as unchangeable as the qualities of matter itself, is reached by an induction so rapid as to seem an intuition. It is only because those phenomena are in their nature simple and unvarying, that his feeble intelligence is able to discern the law which controls them. In this sphere one phenomenon stands for a thousand; to know one is to be acquainted with all. But in other departments of knowledge, phenomena are no longer identical; the apprehension of one is far from implying the understanding of any other; each must be studied by itself. Even then the phenomena of to-morrow may differ from those of to-day, and both from those of yesterday. Hence, instead of an unvarying model or formula being established, to which all future forms and phases of disease may be referred, instead even of a definition which shall represent, once and forever, the essential elements of a disease, its ideal image is perpetually undergoing modification. It is not an abstract creation of the mind, nor even the image of unvarying or constantly recurring and identical phenomena; it is only a faithful but imperfect picture which is continually becoming less imperfect as one detail after another is added to it of the natural object which it represents, and as one after another misrepresentation of reality which mars its truthfulness and unity is obliterated from the canvas.

Whoever would represent Medicine as it is, must possess some such idea as this of the task before him; and, while he carefully excludes all form and colour which nature does not authorize; while he renounces all attempts to fill up gaps in the chain of phenomena by links of his own forging, and to eke out what is incomplete by conjecture, he should omit nothing which is essential to the history and logical development of medicine as a science and an art, or nothing, at least, which is sanctioned by truth as well as hallowed by time. But a treatise on the whole theory and prac-

tice conceived in such a spirit, and faithfully executed, cannot be compressed within the limits of a single volume, nor even of two volumes like the one now before us, unless its author possess such a thorough mastery of the subject as will enable him to present its essential rather than its adventitious features, and preserve its unity without exaggerating its details. At the same time, if his work is intended for the learner and the ordinary practitioner, rather than for the scientific physician who seeks a solution, or, where that is impracticable, an enlightened discussion of the more intricate problems of pathology and therapeutics, he must take little for granted, and carefully winnow the mature and perfect seeds of knowledge from the crude and imperfect grain, and also from the chaff of false science and mere speculation.

We are happy to think that this object is very successfully attained in the work before us. The author speaks of it as a "Digest," of the "condensation" of its matter, and of the "conciseness consistent with clearness" which he has studied to preserve in its style. Avoiding amplification in language, and using illustrative cases very sparingly, he has, nevertheless, always made himself clearly understood, and he generally leaves upon the reader's mind, not only a distinct idea, but an impression that it has been clothed in the most appropriate words. Solid, compact, yet clear, it adequately represents the present condition of practical medicine as it could only be done by a physician who unites to scientific culture a large and well digested experience in the clinical study of medicine.

The fruits of his long and diligent observation are familiar to the readers of this journal by his numerous contributions to practical medicine, as they are to the profession generally by his works on the Physical Diagnosis of Diseases of the Lungs and Heart, and by his Clinical Reports on Continued Fevers, &c. Indeed, it would be difficult to name an American physician who, by the extent, variety, and accuracy of his clinical studies has a better right to speak with authority upon many of the subjects of his present work, or whose conclusions in regard to others respecting which his own observation may have been less extensive and minute, are more deserving of attention and respect. The most perfect treatise on a subject like the present must, from the necessity of the case, and for the most part, indeed, be a critical compilation. But, when it is the work of a critic who is practically familiar with the phenomena and laws of disease, the effects of remedies, and the principles of medical observation, it assumes a value second only to that of his personal experience.

Premising these remarks, we shall endeavour to give some notion of the work before us.

An introductory chapter is occupied with a summary account of the province of medicine as distinguished from surgery and obstetrics. Not only in this chapter, which deals very much with definitions, but generally throughout his work, the author displays conspicuously a quality of rare excellence in medical writers as well as in other literary men, the power, namely, of expressing his ideas in succinct terms of definite signification. This, which is comparatively easy in the description of phenomena, is exceedingly difficult when the subject is an abstract one, and when the mind is obliged, as it were, to create the object, as well as to find words appropriate for describing it. And here it may be remarked that the style of the whole work is remarkable for its conciseness and compactness, for the excellent order of its ideas, and for the fitting words in which they are clothed. Such qualities are incompatible with loose and vague ideas in an author's

mind, and in the present instance may be presumed to be the consequence of his thorough acquaintance with the subjects he discusses. Indeed, they are most conspicuous in those chapters with which his previous publications attest his peculiar familiarity. Inequalities may be expected in the excellence of different parts on other grounds than that just referred to, and among them the author's peculiar tastes, his fondness for partianlar topics, his possible aversion to others, and his indifference to others still; but the reader should be content if no portion of the work be negligently executed, although some may bear marks of a peculiarly careful and even loving elaboration. As usual, in works of this sort, "The Principles of Medicine, or General Pathology," are treated of in several introductory chapters, although in a very summary manner. Yet the leading facts of the science of morbid anatomy, including the processes by which the lesions arise, are clearly and correctly set forth. One statement is made, however, which, we think, cannot be accepted as expressing the present doctrine in regard to tubercle. The author maintains that the term "tuberculous" should be restricted to yellow tubercle, and that there is no foundation for the idea, which originated with Laennec, that yellow is developed from gray or miliary tubercle. We have elsewhere shown in this Journal (July, 1861, p. 140) that Rokitansky, having abandoned the contrary opinion, reasserted the original doctrine of Laennec, adding that "the metamorphosis may commence so early and advance so rapidly as to make it seem as if the tubercle had been originally formed opaque and yellow;" and this, we apprehend, is the teaching of every authoritative pathologist, except Robin. Another statement which is liable to mislead, is that "a truly scrofulous deposit is identical with the tuberculous;" for it is unaccompanied by any sufficient declaration of the essential differences between scrofula and tuberculosis as diseases. It is, indeed, said that "clinical observation appears to show that they who suffer from scrofulous or tuberculous affections of the glands of the neck in early life are not more liable than others to pulmonary tuberculosis in after life;" but that is not by any means the whole truth. It would be much more correct to say that glandular scrofula seems rather to exclude pulmonary tuberculosis, and that, as complications of phthisis, tubercles may be found in almost every other organ and membrane rather than in the lymphatic glands.

The essential unity of the different forms of cancer is very well stated; but it is not made sufficiently plain that the differences in their gross forms depend chiefly upon the rapidity of their growth, and that there is no such thing as a specific cancer-cell. The author doubts that "the system becomes infected by the introduction into the circulation of matter derived from an existing cancerous affection;" but we may be permitted to suggest that the facts of the case do not support his conclusion, since nothing is more notorious than that the extension of cancer from organ to organ follows the anatomical relations and dependencies of the organs successively affected. While, also, it must be admitted, as he states, that a cancerous diathesis may be inherited, it must also be acknowledged that a hereditary taint can be traced in only a very small fraction (about 8 per cent.) of the cases; and, further, it is very certain that the usually recognized signs of the diathesis in question are the effects of the developed disease, and not the indications either of its imminent outbreak, or of a remote tendency to its production.

The articles on Transudations, Dropsies, and Degenerations are very clear, and, for the most part, accurate; but the value of the iodine test for

amyloid degeneration is over-estimated. The changes of colour which attend its application are now known to depend upon mechanical causes, and not upon the presence of starch or any analogous substance. It is stated, under the head of Pneumatoses, that excessive distension of the stomach and bowels by gas must be accounted for by supposing it to be secreted by the mucous surface of these organs; but, apart from the impossibility involved in the supposition that such volumes of gas could be contained in the blood, it is now pretty well ascertained that the sudden distension of these cavities with gas proceeds from the equally sudden relaxation of their muscular walls; that it is, in other words, a nervous phenomenon. Every one must have noticed in certain cases of dyspepsia, how pressure on either side of the lower dorsal spinous processes will produce a sudden distension of the stomach, and sometimes abundant eructations of flatus.

The morbid conditions of the blood, plethora, anæmia, &c., are briefly but very clearly described. Plethora is defined "an increase in the number of the red globules," after Andral; but it is very certain that the mass of the blood is also increased in this affection, since vascular turgor is one of its most striking phenomena. There is no ground for coining a new word, *polyhæmia*, to designate a super-abundance of normal blood in the system. The condition in which the quantity of the circulating fluid is augmented, but its crisis impaired, is described by our author as pseudo-plethora. The appropriate and usual designation of this condition, serous plethora, he seems to have overlooked. Under *hyperinosis* there is an argument which, it seems to us, involves a grave error, since it is employed to sustain a practice which the experience of ages condemns. Blood-letting and low diet, we are told, increase the fibrin in the blood; now, an increase of fibrin in the blood is an effect of inflammation; *ergo*, blood-letting and diet promote inflammation! Such is the practical *reductio ad absurdum* of therapeutics in the school of Bruno redivivus. The fallacy lies in this: that the increase in the *proportion* of fibrin in equal quantities of blood, drawn on consecutive days during an inflammation, is made to represent the *absolute quantity* of fibrin in the blood. As an acute attack of disease advances, the blood disks decline both positively and relatively, because less food is assimilated than in health, and at the same time more blood disks become effete and perish; at the same time, also, the proportion of fibrin rises because disintegration continues, and elimination is checked. Necessarily, therefore, the disproportion between these two elements is ever on the increase when depletion is employed, since the source which supplies the one is cut off or obstructed, while access to that which supplies the other is not interfered with until the waste of the tissues has reached a very low point. Analyses of the blood, therefore, are insufficient to prove whether the absolute quantity of fibrin in that fluid is increased or diminished; and consequently the proposition that depletion and diet augment the fibrin or favour inflammation is an unwarranted assumption, as well as a direct contradiction of the medical experience of all ages. The associate proposition that food and stimulants are the appropriate, rational, and specific remedies for inflammation or for hyperinosis, however induced, is one which, in spite of the doctors, nature revolts at, and manifests her repugnance by a loss of appetite, and an aversion to food which amounts often to a loathing, while she equally signifies her desire to promote the waste of tissue by a craving for water which is often incessant and insatiable. We are perpetually witnesses of her ineffectual struggles under

the fashionable system of therapeutics, which kills with well-meant but most pernicious kindness, perhaps as many as were at one time sacrificed to the lancet, mercury, and perturbative drugs of all sorts. Unfortunately, the temptations of the physician to active interference with the course of disease seem to be irresistible. He has a lurking suspicion that his mission is unfulfilled, or at least will seem to be so, unless the patient is made to pay both in person and in purse; and hence he acquires a habit of treating nature as if she were a laggard in her duty, and required to be smartly pricked at times to prevent her slumbering at her post. Or, finding that the more fastidious of his sick revolt at the heroic and repulsive doses he prescribes, and exhibit a perverse tendency to run off into moonshine medicine, he keeps them faithful to him, or lures them back by a system as simple as that of a famous quack, whose motto was, "Life is heat, Disease is cold," and, by gorging them with dainties and alcohol, at last puts out fire by fire, if, haply, in the process the patient's life be not extinguished.

In the succeeding article upon coagulation of the blood, which presents an excellent summary of the facts and relations of this subject, our author is again drawn into an error, as we consider it, when to the question, "Does buffed and cupped blood, when it denotes an excess of fibrin, constitute an indication for blood-letting?" he answers, "Certainly not, for blood-letting tends to increase the fibrin, and diminish the globules;" but he adds, "The propriety of bleeding must therefore rest on other grounds." These grounds are indeed not indicated, perhaps because they would have been out of place in the actual discussion; but there is left upon the reader's mind an impression that the pathological objection just stated is an unanswerable one; whereas, if the reflections we have made above are just, the objection is totally without validity on correct pathological grounds, as well as on that of experience. Indeed, the topic appears to us to be precisely one of those which most forcibly illustrate the danger of founding practice upon theory. A little further on, we meet with an instance of the same sort. It is stated that Dr. Richardson has attempted to show, and the author regards his explanation as probably true, that the fluidity of the blood is preserved by the presence of ammonia in it. It is added, that this medicine is now administered with a view to maintain the liquidity of the fibrin in the blood in certain cases of hyperinosis. It would follow that ammonia must be strongly contraindicated in whatever diseases are characterized by an impaired coagulability of the blood. But, if so, what becomes of the testimony of the whole world in favour of ammonia in typhus fever, and in poisoning by venomous serpents and insects, affections in which the crasis of the blood is notoriously impaired? But here, as in the other case, the theory, like so many others, rests upon an insecure foundation; for the reader need not be told that the conclusions of Dr. Richardson are very far from being accepted by physiologists, many of whom deduce very different consequences from the experiments themselves.

Several articles follow on the increase and diminution of albumen, water, fat, sugar, and excrementitious substances in the blood. It is said to be "not improbable" that the vapour of the expired breath contains excrementitious principles. No allusion is here made to the presence of ammonia in this exhalation during typhus fever, uræmia, &c. Cholæmia and pyæmia are considered in this connection, and the more precise elements of knowledge at present existing in regard to viruses, miasms, venoms, and

poisons are succinctly but clearly set forth. In a subsequent article, the doctrine of the primary origin in blood changes of all diseases arising within the body is maintained in a brief but satisfactory argument. Three chapters on etiology, symptomatology, and general therapeutics conclude the first part of the work.

We cannot take leave of this portion of the treatise without a more special reference to its principal subjects, general pathology and morbid anatomy, nor without reiterating the surprise which has often been expressed, that among the leading medical schools of America one only possesses a chair of pathological anatomy. In all of them, the professor of the theory and practice of medicine is supposed to afford instruction upon that branch of medical science; but it is abundantly evident that his time is wholly insufficient for a complete account even of the clinical relations of disease. At every step of his course he is obliged to assume the existence of a knowledge respecting morbid processes and products, on the part of his pupils, which he is sure that they do not possess, even in reference to individual diseases; and that far less can they be supposed acquainted with the nature, mode of development, tendencies, and effects of morbid processes, as they are presented in diseases which are nosologically and clinically different. General ideas of disease they have next to none; and the longer they sit under the instruction, whose great deficiency we deplore, the more they become fixed in the error that diseases are separate entities, like so many plants or animals, and the less they recognize in them their genuine characters as various disorders of the same living organic whole. How fruitful a source this is of scientific error, how powerfully it tends to render physicians routinists in practice, and credulous of every novelty, provided it be only asserted strongly and persistently, must be evident to every observant and reflecting man, whose public training or whose self-education has enabled him to survey the field of medicine from an elevated position. If medicine were taught as it should be; if in every medical college general pathology and morbid anatomy entered into the ordinary curriculum, we should less frequently observe than now a neglect of the purely scientific branches upon the ground of their not being "practical;" for it would then be apparent that chemistry and physiology are the only keys which can unlock the doors which conceal the secrets of life and disease, and that no idea of disease can be complete, or even accurate, which does not embrace that of its accompanying changes of structure, and of their mode of production.

The Introductory Chapter of Part II., embracing the great body of the work, and devoted to "Practice of Medicine or Special Pathology," contains some very accurate definitions, or short descriptions, of the principal terms to be employed such as "Clinical History," "Pathological Character," and "Disease" itself. No novelty in classification is attempted, but the usual division adopted into General and Local Diseases. General diseases are, however, contrary to the usual custom, treated of last, instead of at the beginning of the work, an innovation which, we think, is hardly justified by convenience or sound logic. Again, in the first Section, comprising diseases of the respiratory system, pleuritis and several other affections of the lungs precede diseases of the larynx, which, in turn, are followed by pulmonary tuberculosis. This arrangement, also, appears to be hardly justified by reason or convenience.

As might be expected from an author who has already written so ably upon diseases of the lungs and heart, the chapters which he devotes to

these subjects are remarkable for their clearness and completeness, although, as it is his right to do, he refers for many of the minuter details to his special works upon these subjects. Speaking of the effusion in pleurisy, it is mentioned that where general adhesion in one pleura has been permanently established, causes which occasion hydrothorax on the opposite side may produce œdema of the lung on the side where the adhesions exist. Of this peculiarity we have recently met with an example in a lady who laboured under general dropsy produced by obstructive mitral disease. The author does not furnish a separate account of subacute pleurisy, although he speaks of it as a variety of frequent occurrence, a statement in which we fully concur. We have repeatedly been consulted by persons having a pleural cavity entirely filled with fluid without any symptom whatever pointing to the chest as the seat of disease; and, even while writing this page, we were called on by a medical gentleman who discovered, only by accident, that he had a pleurisy of the left side; and yet so copious was the effused liquid that it had dislocated the heart, whose apex we found beating half-way between the sternum and the right nipple.

In the treatment of acute pleurisy the author concludes that depletion is rarely necessary, but that, nevertheless, it tends materially and immediately to the patient's relief when he is plethoric, oppressed, and suffering severe pain. We are convinced that it is infinitely safer and less exhausting, as well as more useful, than tartar emetic, digitalis, aconite, or veratrum viride, which we are told diminish the frequency and the force of the heart's action. The author is too sound a pathologist to suppose that any or all of these medicines which merely depress the heart, can as favourably influence the inflammatory process, as can bleeding, or purgation, which depletes the vessels of their liquid contents; nor will he regard as indifferent the horrible nausea, the sense of sinking, or the downright syncope and death-like exhaustion which these agents are liable to produce if they exert any influence whatever. In some general remarks upon bloodletting he dissents from the opinion held by some that diseases have undergone a notable change during the last quarter of a century, and that bloodletting and other antiphlogistic measures are less appropriate now than formerly, on this account, and he expresses a conviction that antiphlogistic measures were no more appropriate then than now. Upon this question it is well known that men of the most enlightened and enlarged experience hold opposite opinions. In England authorities are divided, and we imagine that an equal divergence may be found among ourselves. A not inattentive observation of disease during the last thirty years has convinced us that the medical constitution changes during comparatively long periods, as it notoriously does within shorter spaces of time. We cannot for a moment admit, with our author, that to accept the occurrence of such changes as real would strike at the root of medical experience, and that they would render impossible permanent principles of practice in medicine. The phenomena of disease and diseases themselves are strikingly different in different climates and localities. The pupil of Parisian teachers who practises in Algeria, the British physician whose field of duty is in the east, our own northern graduates who dwell on the alluvial bottoms of the south, or on the distant shores of the Pacific Ocean, have all to learn new lessons, and modify those which their teachers inculcated in regard to the genius and the treatment of disease; and yet it would be preposterous to assume that on this account there are no permanent principles of medicine. In regard to this very subject of venesection, it is very

certain that southern nations, who live chiefly on vegetable food, are as intolerant of it and of other depletory measures, as the meat-eating tribes of the north support such evacuations well. If these things be so, is it incredible that in the same climatic region the genius of disease may from time to time undergo modifications, more permanently and on a larger scale, but of the same nature as those which constitute the familiar epidemic constitution? While maintaining an opinion opposed to our author's, we do not overlook the influence of fashion in medicine, nor hesitate to admit that few remedial measures have been more abused than depletion, because few, if any, can be mentioned more susceptible of abuse; but we have little hesitation in predicting that a remedy which has been in almost constant use since medicine became an art, will one day be as much in vogue as ever, and that a new cohort of Sangrados or Broussais will again abuse it to the prolongation of disease, the permanent injury of the health, and the peril of life itself.

In a subsequent paragraph our author lauds the use of opium as an antiphlogistic in acute pleurisy, as he does elsewhere, this virtue of the drug in other acute inflammations. Nearly all that he says of its power to eliminate pain and restlessness from the symptoms, and consequently to limit the inflammatory process to a greater or less extent, is in conformity with the well-established results of experience, as well as the advantage of prefacing its employment by that of bloodletting and other evacuates. After prescribing the manner in which tartar emetic and veratrum viride should be used, he adds that their importance is somewhat questionable. We take it to be even more than questionable, and even, as he says of the use of mercury and iodine employed as sorbefacients, objectionable. The latter of these medicines, as an external application, he properly considers of doubtful efficacy.

In the chapter on chronic pleurisy the author reiterates his previously published opinion, that the disease does not predispose to pulmonary tuberculosis, an opinion sustained by the observations of Dr. Blakiston, and which our own experience leads us to confirm. A curious case is related of a man in whom, after death, the left pleura was entirely lined by a chondroid formation from one-eighth to one-quarter of an inch in thickness, and so rigid after removal as to retain the shape of the cavity. It contained about two gallons of turbid liquid. The operation of thoracentesis is spoken of as innocuous. A case, which we think must be very rare, is mentioned, in which spontaneous perforation of the thoracic walls took place, although the effusion was not purulent. Under pneumo-hydrothorax it is stated that this condition always implies the existence of a communication with the external air through bronchia or else through the parietes of the chest. We have met with a case in which no such history could be discovered, but only that of an acute pleurisy with bronchitis occurring in a perfectly healthy man. It is, however, quite possible that a minute vomica, or a very limited emphysema, may have existed which occasioned a perforation of the pleura. A very interesting case is related by the author of simple pneumothorax produced, apparently, by carrying a heavy weight upon the back.

The subject of pneumonitis is treated in a very superior manner, as might be expected from the author's large experience and minute study of this disease. It is interesting to observe that he found the right lung was attacked more frequently than the left in the ratio of 1.7 : 1; while Grisolle, in his classical work on this subject gives the ratio of 1.8 : 1.

In the remarks upon the rate of removal of the exudation it might, we think, have been stated, that this process is materially retarded by the presence of articular rheumatism, perhaps because the blood then becomes overloaded with fibrin. Such cases are not uncommon, and are, we have remarked, singularly tedious. The complication with periodical fever is alluded to, but the cases are not particularly mentioned in which the special phenomena of pneumonia are exhibited only during the paroxysms of the periodical affection. The pathological character of the disease is correctly stated to be an inflammation of the tissue lining the air cells, and not, as it is sometimes described, of the inter-vesicular connective tissue, a tissue which there is good reason to believe does not exist except upon the limits of the lobules. The influence of season in the production of this disease is not, perhaps, as accurately estimated as it might be; for, although it is very true, as our author remarks, that pneumonia everywhere prevails during the winter more than during the summer months, this effect he maintains, is clearly not attributable merely to cold, since he himself observed more than twice as many cases in March and April, as he did in January and February. So Grisolle (2d ed., 1864) states that out of 553 cases of pneumonia 104 occurred in April, and it appears that he met with nearly twice as many in March and April as he did in January and February (186 and 100). These results help to explain and justify our author's statement that "in this country the disease occurs in the Middle and Southern much oftener than in the Northern States." In the former, he remarks, it is emphatically the prevalent disease during the winter months, affecting especially the negro population. In a word, pneumonia is peculiarly apt to be produced, not by cold merely, but by cold and dampness acting upon persons debilitated and rendered morbidly susceptible to their influence by insufficient protection against inclement weather, as in the South, or by the abrupt vicissitudes of temperature which mark the close of winter and the beginning of spring in the North, and the incautions changes of clothing which are then indulged in. That it should be a more fatal disease in the Southern than in the Northern States, as the author alleges, is also explained by the more enervating influence of the climate in the former.

The author takes especial notice of the liability there is, in this disease, to death from the coagulation of fibrin in the right cavities of the heart, an event which he regards as of not infrequent occurrence, but which he thinks has not been sufficiently considered. They have, however, been fully described by Bouillaud and by Grisolle, although it is true that the latter appears to believe that the disorder of the circulation they give rise to is usually neither permanent nor fatal. Many years ago we reported a case (*Med. Examiner*, Jan. 1840) in which, along with double pneumonia and pericarditis, there was a large, firm, and pale coagulum in the right cavities of the heart, covered by a perfect membrane which had the aspect of a serous membrane.

Of the treatment advised in pneumonia we need only say that it is, on the whole, stimulant and supporting. Depletion is not excluded, but, on the contrary, admitted "in certain cases, as a palliative, and, perhaps, to some extent, as a curative, measure;" and sometimes, we are told, when this most powerful antiphlogistic remedy would be unsafe, it may be prudent to employ tartar emetic, veratrum viride, and saline purgatives; but opium is the main dependence in the second as well as the first stage; and in the second the leading general indication is to support the powers of life,

with more or less activity according to the greater or less predominance of the asthenic type.

In a short article on chronic pneumonitis the opinion of Rokitansky is quoted that "the exudation takes place into the inter-lobular and inter-vesicular areolar tissue," an opinion irreconcilable with the anatomical fact that no such tissue as that last mentioned exists. Besides, if the deposit leads, as it is said to lead, to a diminution of the volume of the affected portion, the condition of the tissue would seem to be more analogous to collapse of the lobules.

Our author throws doubt upon the common supposition that primary bronchitis is generally, or even frequently, produced by the action of cold, and thinks it reasonable to conclude that the disease is due to some morbid agent in the atmosphere, or some special atmospheric change. No plausible reason is alleged to support this scepticism upon a point of universal faith. Among the rarer dangers of this disease is one that might have been alluded to, its occurrence during paralysis of the external muscles of respiration. We have recently attended a little girl who had been for several months affected with general paralysis produced by an injury of the cervical portion of the spinal cord, or rather of its membranes. She was steadily recovering when she caught cold by lying too near a window during extremely cold weather; general bronchitis supervened, and her only available respiratory muscle, the diaphragm, being insufficient for expelling the bronchial secretions, she perished by slow asphyxia. The action of the chest in this case resembled that which occurs in emphysema of the lungs, the lower, anterior, and lateral portions being drawn inwards during respiration by the contraction of the diaphragm. The movement alluded to is described by the author of this work in his excellent article on pulmonary emphysema, but its mechanism is not explained.

In the introductory remarks to diseases of the larynx the author mentions a case of loss of the epiglottis, in which, after the ulcerated parts had healed, liquids and solids were swallowed without much inconvenience, and the quality of the voice underwent but little change. Cases of the same sort are narrated by Gibb and others, and they help to prove the extreme importance of laryngoscopy; for, before its introduction, the integrity of the epiglottis was thought to be essential to both deglutition and phonation.

The articles which treat of Laryngitis are marred by some peculiarities of nomenclature and arrangement which, it seems to us, obscure the subject greatly. The first affection is termed "*Acute Ordinary Laryngitis*," and yet the reader is told that in the adult it is so rare that practitioners of considerable experience may have never met with an example of it. Moreover, it is afterwards stated, and with apparent inconsistency, that *subacute* inflammation of the larynx is of frequent occurrence. The term "*ordinary*" in this connection is therefore a misnomer, or else the statement concerning the rarity of the disease is an error. Again, "*subacute laryngitis*" is made to stand for "*catarrhal croup*," an affection whose physiognomy is totally different, and is rendered so by the presence of a spasmodic element. This last form of laryngeal inflammation, one of the most common, and to parents a very alarming, affection of children, and which is familiar to most medical men as spasmodic laryngitis or spasmodic croup, is denied by our author the honour of even a separate and independent status, and is dismissed in half a page as a variety of spasm of the glottis. This is a most singular oversight; for spasm of the glottis is purely and

simply a reflex spasm excited by disease elsewhere than in the larynx; whereas spasmodic laryngitis, as its name implies, is an affection of the larynx itself in which an inflammatory and a spasmodic element are combined. It is not, as the author states it to be, "purely spasmodic," but is very generally both preceded and followed by catarrhal symptoms. Finally, the name "œdema of the glottis" is restricted to a serous or dropsical effusion in the areolar tissue beneath the mucous membrane above the vocal cords, when it would be more correct to describe this œdema as an effect not only of general blood disorders, but also of inflammatory and ulcerative diseases of the larynx, and to recognize, with Dr. Gibb, a supra-glottic and a sub-glottic form.

Apart from these defects, as we deem them, the description of the symptoms of the several laryngeal affections is clear, and the rules given for their management judicious. But we are obliged to notice one or two exceptions. The cough in pseudo-membranous laryngitis is described as "shrill, barking, crowing, as if the sound were produced within a metallic tube, the *tussis clangosa* of Cullen, and accompanied frequently by sonorous or stridulous breathing." These terms are perfectly applicable to the cough of spasmodic laryngitis; but the cough of croup with false membrane is hoarse at first, then rapidly becomes smothered, and finally loses its sonorous quality altogether. Indeed, there is hardly a symptom of this fatal disease more characteristic than the *smothered* cough. The treatment recommended for croup is, for the most part, judicious; but the following language is very open to criticism:—

"The introduction of the sponge probang into the larynx of the child is difficult, owing to the small size of the glottis, and, frequently, the want of co-operation on the part of the patient; yet, it may be effected. I have witnessed a recovery in a case in which this was the chief measure relied upon. The applications were made twice daily. When the false membrane is loosened, the introduction of the sponge may be useful mechanically, detaching the membrane and pushing it below the glottis."

We suspect that these statements were written without mature consideration. It must have been forgotten by the author how overwhelming and conclusive is the experimental evidence against the possibility of the operation in question, even in cases of adults, published by the physicians of his own city, and must have overlooked the statement made by himself a few pages before, viz., "*The exudation may not extend below the larynx, but as a rule it takes place in the trachea,*" so that the operation, even if it were feasible, would certainly tend to compact the exudation, and render the trachea altogether impervious, rather than to free it from the existing obstruction. Even Dr. Gibb, specialist though he be, and reputed very expert in laryngeal operations, gives no countenance to such an operation, but advises only the employment of "the spray of a solution of nitrate of silver."

A case is related by the author which, it seems to us, should have weight in the question whether, in many cases of chronic laryngeal obstruction, it might not be well to establish a permanent opening in the trachea.

"A patient aged about forty, admitted into the wards in Bellevue Hospital, suffering from the effects of a debauch, had a fistulous orifice in the anterior portion of the trachea large enough to admit the end of the forefinger. This fistula followed a wound received in a fracas, and had existed for seventeen years. It occasioned little or no inconvenience in respiration."

As might be expected, the chapters treating of pulmonary tuberculosis

are worthy of the author's reputation in this department of medicine. Of late years, certain medical writers, having apparently in view a vain and ephemeral popular applause, with its contingent gains, rather than the slower but more lasting approbation of professional judges, have ascribed certain symptoms and signs to what they are pleased to call "the pre-tuberculous stage" of pulmonary consumption. Of this the author mildly remarks that it "cannot be considered as established by clinical observation." The moderation of this judgment is, indeed, characteristic of his criticisms generally, and, perhaps, is most becoming in a purely didactic treatise; but one cannot help suspecting that so competent a judge must have had his equanimity frequently disturbed by current dicta and opinions which his own observation had proved to be not only erroneous, but groundless. Several writers, and some of excellent and deserved reputation, have also described dyspepsia as apt to precede the development of phthisis. But our author, who has certainly both possessed and taken advantage of opportunities as great as theirs, merely remarks: "If this be so, the ailments are not, as a rule, of a striking character." This, it appears to us, is stating his dissent in a less emphatic form than the case requires; for, certainly, among dyspeptics phthisis is a most unusual sequence of the digestive derangement, and among consumptives it is not very unusual for appetite and digestion to continue unimpaired until the end. Only a few weeks ago we lost a patient, a lady who passed through all the normal stages of chronic consumption, first in the left and afterwards in the right lung, and who, to the day of her death, ate, and with a good deal of relish, and always without any gastric disturbance, a great variety of solid and liquid nutritious food. Such cases, although numerous, do not certainly form the rule, which is that appetite and digestion sooner or later become impaired, as in the course of all chronic and wasting diseases.

In his remarks on the extremely unequal duration of chronic phthisis, the author states that he has a patient under observation in whom there is reason to believe it has existed for forty years. Such cases are sometimes seized upon by carping critics as throwing doubt upon the diagnostic skill of the physician, and it is well to have such an authority as the present one to appeal to in confirmation of an opinion well founded in fact. In another place he condemns the opinion, industriously propagated by certain persons, that chronic pharyngitis has a tendency to eventuate in pulmonary tuberculosis. He furnishes some striking illustrations of the mortality caused by the disease in certain families, even where the parents and their ancestors were free from the tuberculous taint. He also affirms, as the result of a special examination of the question, that scrofulous disease of the lymphatic glands in early life does not predispose to tubercular consumption. He is of opinion that the mortality from this disease "has undoubtedly diminished within the last ten or fifteen years," and thinks that "this must be obvious to medical observers whose professional experience extends backwards a quarter of a century or more," as well as deducible from the mortuary reports of Great Britain and of our own large cities. We think there is reason to apprehend that this statement is more favourable than is warranted by the facts of the case. The impressions of physicians upon such questions are evidently of little value; statistical results alone are worthy of any trust; and even these are open to a great many doubts. To mention one only, erroneous diagnosis; it is certain that deaths by various wasting pulmonary diseases, which were formerly reported as deaths from tubercular phthisis, are now found under the head of *bronchitis*

and elsewhere. Moreover, it must be remembered that the population is all the time rapidly increasing in most cities, and by the addition of a class more hardy than the original inhabitants, and of a greater average age than theirs. Again, if we take, in Paris, for instance, the annual mortality for a decennial period, as Boudin has done for that between 1839 and 1850, we find that the rate of mortality from consumption is positively increased, and not diminished. Sanitary improvement is, much more probably than the treatment of disease, the cause of whatever diminution of the death-rate is ascertained to have occurred in any place from which authentic and trustworthy returns have been made.

The author concurs with Walshe, Ware, and others, in believing that the prognosis is more favourable in cases characterized by the repeated occurrence of hæmoptysis than in others; he is of the opinion that laryngitis also is favourable, excepting the cases of it in which the epiglottis and top of the larynx are involved; and entertaining a similar opinion of perineal fistula, he advises that it should be allowed to continue without surgical interference. This advice is contrary to that of some surgeons, whose competency in the question may, however, without offence and fairly, be questioned.

The treatment of pulmonary consumption advised by the author contrasts strongly and strangely with that multifarious medication which is recommended in many works even now, and a few years ago was with vain prolixity set forth in all which discussed this subject. The question, Is the tuberculous cachexia removable by any known special remedy or remedies? he answers distinctly in the negative. The only measures indicated are those which tend to strengthen and invigorate; and the hygienic are infinitely more important than the medicinal. Exercise and nutritious food are the fundamental and essential elements of the treatment; the one to create appetite, the other to promote assimilation. "Let good digestion wait on appetite, and health on both." The author illustrates the influence of these agents, with particular reference to exercise in the open air, and to the use of alcohol and cod-liver oil, and cites many cases of apparent, if not of absolute, cure by their means. He notices a remarkable fact, which we have also observed, that in some cases of phthisis there is a singular tolerance of alcohol so long as the health remains impaired, but that when once the strength and flesh have been restored it begins to act as an intoxicating drink, and cannot be continued in the usual doses. This curious circumstance has a striking analogy in typhus fever, in the typhoid state, and in many asthenic conditions. He also calls attention to another well-established fact, that neither alcohol nor cod-liver oil affects all cases of consumption favourably. Some are utterly intolerant of both of these medicines. He passes in review and condemns several of the more recently proposed specifics; and remarks that he "can say nothing of the attempt to inject tuberculous cavities with a solution of nitrate of silver, &c." To say even this is perhaps over-much. Certain persons and their acts acquire a tinge of respectability from the merest notice of honest men.

Among the inflammations which it was formerly considered unsafe to treat without mercurialization is pericarditis; and, unless we are greatly mistaken, not a few practitioners consider it essential still. We are glad, therefore, to find a very decided opinion upon this subject expressed in the present work, the more so as it has been reached in spite of contrary impressions, not only entertained, but published, by the author. Since the publication of the opinion referred to, he says, "I have treated the cases

of pericarditis which have come under my observation without mercury, and I have found no reason to be dissatisfied with its omission." In this, as in other acute inflammations, he considers opium to be invaluable, and dwells on the importance of promoting the nutritive functions and supplying nutritious food when the active stage of the disease has passed.

The author adopts Dr. Richardson's theory of the genesis of endocarditis, ascribing it to an excess of lactic acid generated by the passage of the blood through the lungs in acute rheumatism. The theory appears to fulfil all the essential conditions of a correct one. Speaking of the murmurs in endocarditis, particular allusion is made to the fact that the most usual murmur is loudest near the heart's apex, while there is no reason to suppose it to be regurgitant, through mitral insufficiency. "It is an intra-ventricular murmur," the author remarks, "or it may be called a *mitral systolic murmur*, this term not implying the occurrence of regurgitation." This account is, perhaps, open to misinterpretation, for it is not evident how a murmur can be at once intra-ventricular and mitral, and yet not regurgitant; the term mitral being usually made to designate the left auriculo-ventricular orifice and the portions of the valve in immediate connection with it. It is possible, certainly, that a murmur may be generated *in the ventricle*, independently of mitral obstruction, but we do not possess any evidence of the fact. It is certain, also, that the mechanical relations of the mitral valve found after death in acute endocarditis do not lend themselves to the support of the supposition that the murmur in question is regurgitant. In fact, the only rational way of explaining most of the instances of mitral murmur in acute endocarditis is to regard them as generated by the direct current of the blood forced or drawn through the mitral orifice. It is, indeed, alleged by high authority that direct mitral murmurs are never recent; but perhaps it would be quite as correct to say that recent mitral murmurs are never regurgitant, since we are not acquainted with any demonstration of valvular insufficiency in acute endocarditis.

Among the causes of functional disorder of the heart, the author might have mentioned exhaustion from prolonged lactation, which is not always the same thing as anæmia; and exhaustion from extreme muscular fatigue, as in those numerous cases which were met with among soldiers during the late war. Speaking of the association of organic lesions and functional disorder, the very important remark is made that the aggregate of the symptoms present are often erroneously referred to the more permanent cause, and, consequently, that a graver prognosis is apt to be formed and pronounced than the circumstances really warrant. The prognosis in angina pectoris is very properly stated to be grave. Still, there are cases which should render a physician cautious in prognosticating a fatal issue. Some years ago we were consulted by a clergyman, who, without having had any known cause of heart disease, became subject to attacks of severe and well-marked angina pectoris. He presented a distinct and slightly rough basic systolic murmur. Treatment of mild dyspeptic symptoms and caution in regard to exercise were enjoined. At the end of a twelve-month the paroxysms had become less frequent and severe, and the murmur was fainter; and after another year both had entirely ceased. Our author does not mention ethereal inhalations among the palliatives of the painful paroxysm. Judiciously employed, they are more efficient than other anodynes.

The third section, treating of diseases affecting the digestive system, opens with dysentery, an unusual arrangement, and one not justified by any

sufficient reason. The disease in question is pretty fully treated of, but its forms are not accurately distinguished. Its contagiousness is denied, without good grounds, as we believe. There seems to us superabundant proof of its being contagious in the same way as cholera, through the alvine evacuations of the sick. The treatment inculcated by the author excludes the once classic calomel and opium, and includes purgatives and opium, the latter in very large doses. A case is referred to of a male patient, not habituated to the use of opium before his illness, who gradually reached the dose of one grain of sulphate of morphia every hour for several consecutive days, without any narcotism. In another case two grains, hourly, of opium were given for the space of a week. Of course such doses are not recommended; but the facts just stated illustrate the remarkable tolerance of opium which is sometimes noticed in this disease. We hope to be pardoned if we doubt that they are ever necessary.

Acute enteritis is described as a separate disease—that is to say, as independent of substantial lesions of the bowels, such as morbid deposits—and also as a different affection from diarrhœa. If the latter, arising from atmospheric changes, be excluded, and also the enteritis of young children, which, after all, is rather an entero-colitis, or even an inflammation involving the entire digestive tract, it is not easy to see what cases remain to represent enteritis, except those produced by corrosive poisons. It may very truly be said, as it is by the author, to be “a rare form of disease after infantile life.” Remarks of a similar kind are measurably, but in a far less degree, applicable to gastritis. In speaking of this disease, the author omits noticing two occasions of its occurrence which are more frequent than all of the rest united. We refer to remittent and yellow fever. In the latter, gastritis occurs in its most exquisite form; and in the former it is associated with duodenitis. An excellent description is given of the different species of pharyngitis; but there is one of frequent occurrence, and which is different from the erythematic in this, that, while it presents less redness and swelling of the pharyngeal mucous membrane, it occasions infinitely more pain in deglutition; indeed, that symptom constitutes its most striking peculiarity. We denominate it rheumatic pharyngitis. Reference is made to an interesting variety, “epidemic simple acute pharyngitis,” of which the author recorded numerous examples in 1864. It appears to have been a very mild form of diphtheria, for cases such as he describes are frequent when diphtheria prevails. Of the chronic form of pharyngitis, called follicular, which has been so dishonestly abused, to the disgrace of certain members of the medical profession, and to the alarm and serious injury of confiding patients, the author says:—

“The inflammation has no tendency to pass into the laryngeal cavity.” “Patients with this affection seldom become tuberculous; its existence is, to some extent, evidence of the non-existence of tuberculosis. It is a popular notion that this affection denotes a consumptive tendency, and this notion is encouraged by a host of irregular practitioners, who, within late years, in this country, have made diseases of the throat a specialty.”

As was long ago taught by Professor Chapman, the author declares that the treatment, to be effective, must have reference to the system. “After considerable experience,” he adds, “I have come to regard topical applications as generally of little or no value.”

A very precise, and, for the nature of the work, a sufficiently detailed account, is furnished of induration, softening, simple ulcer, and carcinoma of the stomach. Here and there a statement may be found of doubtful

accuracy. Thus, in the history of simple gastric ulcer, it is said, following Dr. Brinton, that "there is no foundation for the idea that hemorrhage from the ulcer occurs vicariously in the place of menstruation." This statement is altogether too exclusive. Indeed, the author himself, when elsewhere speaking of *gastrorrhagia*, expressly admits that "it may occur in place of the menses in cases of *amenorrhœa*;" and again, "that it may take the place of the menses must be admitted." Now, if it may do so when the stomach is sound, how much more likely will it be to occur when the blood-vessels of that organ are already weakened by ulceration of its internal tunics. Speaking of the necessity of giving the stomach as much rest as possible in this disease, so as to favour cicatrization of the ulcers, some striking cases are mentioned, in which life was sustained for several weeks by the administration of nutritive enemata. It must not be forgotten that such cases call for a very searching scrutiny. Hunger and thirst are very imperious appetites, and the number of patients must be very small whom even the fear of death would restrain from yielding to their clamorous demands.

The chapter on Intestinal Obstruction is particularly valuable for the clearness of the diagnostic differences which it describes as existing between the several forms of the disease. An article on Functional Obstruction admits that "persistent obstipation, accompanied with vomiting of so-called stercoraceous matter, colic, pains, etc., may occur, there is reason to believe, as a purely functional disorder." The author is inclined to this belief because he has observed the affection in nervous women chiefly. The reason is hardly a conclusive one; irregular muscular contraction, which is characteristic of such cases, affects the intestine, as it does all of the muscular organs, and must be very apt to produce invagination, just as we know that it does in the act of death, in children constantly, and not unfrequently in adults. There is at least as much reason why invagination should be overcome under these circumstances as when it takes place in persons entirely free from nervous excitability. Clinical evidence renders the latter in the highest degree probable; for there are instances of persons in perfect health being suddenly seized with all the symptoms of intestinal obstruction, after unwonted muscular efforts, and yet recovering entirely. Among others, Brinton reports such cases, and in one of them, when the patient some time afterwards died of a different disease, "the appendix cæci was bound by adhesion to the brim of the pelvis, and several bridles of adhesion extended to portions of the small intestine at this part; one of them was very long, and had apparently led to constriction, and the previous symptoms of strangulation."

The article on *Dyspepsia* is very judiciously written; but it more than once enounces the doctrine which we have already ventured to pronounce erroneous—that flatulent distension of the stomach and bowels may be due to "gas secreted or evolved in some way independently of chemical changes in the ingesta." It was a not uncommon symptom among soldiers during the late war, and among them we suspect that it sometimes arose from another cause pointed out by the author, *viz.*, a habit of swallowing air; although it seemed attributable in certain cases to the use of bread made without yeast, the so-called aerated bread. There is doubtless such a thing as scientific cookery, but if this be one of its triumphs, heaven preserve us from becoming its victims! Gastric hemorrhage, we are told, is sometimes simulated by hysterical females, etc. We remember being very much amused with the learned explanations suggested by an eminent physician

of the case of a young lady who excited the greatest alarm in her family by occasionally spitting blood, which was always in small quantity, of a dark colour, and mingled with saliva. The catamenia were regular. For these reasons, and because there was no discoverable organic cause of the hæmoptysis, we assumed that it was voluntarily produced. Not long afterwards the patient gave unquestionable evidence of hysterical insanity, and she was removed to a hospital, where she still remains, after the lapse of six or seven years. Among the causes of gastralgia the author omits one of the most frequent, chewing tobacco. A curious illustration of the fallacies arising from imperfect observation is furnished in the chapter on Gall-Stones, where the author relates several cases in which patients who had taken large doses of olive oil for the cure of gall-stones were convinced of its efficacy by finding in their alvine evacuations numerous rounded or oval bodies like sheeps' or goats' dung. These were nothing more than the concrete matter of the oil shaped by the intestinal movements. The subject of Diarrhœa is well treated, its different forms being plainly characterized. Some interesting remarks are made on fatty diarrhœa, without, however, clearing up the obscurities of the subject. Diarrhœa from exposure to cold is attributed to the irritant action of undigested aliment in the large intestine; it is much more probably due to a suppression of the cutaneous exhalation. Intestinal hemorrhage, or enterorrhagia, is briefly but accurately described, according to the causes producing it. "Like gastric hemorrhage," the author remarks, "it may be vicarious of menstruation." This statement is not quite consistent with that already referred to in connection with diseases of the stomach. A case lately fell into our hands in which a lady was pronounced by her medical attendant to be dangerously affected with dysentery, because, on the proper date for menstruation, the previous period having passed without discharge in consequence of her exposure to cold, she had a profuse hemorrhage from the bowels. A mildly tonic treatment was used. At the subsequent epoch her menses reappeared, and her health was fully restored. The treatment of constipation, one of the most serious of the minor diseases, because it often leads to such an impairment of the health as to destroy the patient's happiness and usefulness together, has always appeared to us exceedingly difficult. The infarction of the bowel is easily overcome indeed, but seldom permanently, for the habits that occasioned it originally can rarely be given up for more wholesome modes of living. Although the author has little to propose in regard to this subject that is new, yet his views of the relative values of medicines and their modes of application, are very sound and judicious. On two points especially we are of his opinion—first, the danger of habitually using enemata; for the torpid bowel, like other sluggish organisms, will soon cease to do for itself what others volunteer to do in its stead; and second, the utter uselessness of belladonna as an aperient, in spite of the emphatic and confident eulogies of Trousseau.

In the article on Colic there is recommended, among other things, for its treatment a small enema containing a drachm of laudanum, and the advice is given to administer double this quantity an hour later, if relief is not obtained from the first dose. These doses appear to us exorbitant, and we cannot wonder that the author, after lauding this as "an efficient opiate treatment," should add, "some patients suffer considerably from the after-effects of the opium given, and this, in some measure, compromises the mutual satisfaction of the patient and physician in the success of the treatment." We have frequently treated severe intestinal colic without either

this untoward result or that of occasioning prolonged gastric distress; but we have not found necessary doses half as large as those which are mentioned above. The author advises a similar method of administering opiates in cholera morbus. In that affection it is less objectionable, since a large portion is rejected of whatever medicine may be taken. The new fashion of administering the pulp of raw meat in cholera infantum suggests the not unimportant remark that in this manner it is not only quite probable, but very certain that tape-worm may be propagated.

The article on Epidemic Cholera is perhaps not as full as if it had been written under the expectation of a speedy advent of the disease among us, and with the light which the progress of the present epidemic has thrown on the method of its propagation. With these facts before him the author would scarcely have stated that "imported cases in situations where the disease had not previously existed do not lead to its diffusion;" nor that it is neither contagious nor infectious, particularly when it is admitted to be "portable," which is surely the same thing as its being either infectious or contagious, or both at once. If there is any fact in the history of cholera diffusion established above all others, it is that no case of the disease can arise independently of preceding cases, and the whole weight of evidence goes to prove that the disease is propagated by the excretions of the sick, and mainly by their infecting water which is used for drinking. We notice one omission, which, in the light of these propositions, is a grave one; we mean the diagnosis of epidemic from sporadic cholera. The identity of their symptoms is so perfect, except in degree, that this fact alone should, we think, have sooner convinced physicians that the immediate cause of the former is, like that of the latter, to be found in the action of some morbid cause upon the gastro-intestinal tract. In the one case, indeed, ordinary crude ingesta suffice to develop the specific phenomena; but in the other a special poison, which has been communicated successively by man to man, from the banks of the Ganges to the United States. The author dwells on the extreme importance of meeting the premonitory symptoms of cholera, the precursory diarrhœa, that is, by small doses of opium and astringents, among the latter of which, however, he omits mentioning the most valuable, as it was shown to be by the British Reports, simple chalk mixture, with or without tincture of kino or catechu and laudanum. In the fully developed disease, before collapse, he would rely mainly upon opiates in large doses; indeed, he recommends a grain of a salt of morphia, to be repeated at intervals of from half to three-fourths of an hour, if the first doses are quickly rejected. The dose mentioned is equal to six grains of opium, and we are constrained to say that it is excessive. It is true, as our author states, that the system, even in the early stage of the disease, is not readily affected by opiates; but, as this depends upon the greater or less absorbent power of the stomach, which cannot easily be estimated, we should shrink from incurring the risk to which we believe the patient would be exposed by such doses. Under the circumstances, the hypodermic injection of a solution of morphia in smaller quantities would seem to be greatly preferable. Among medicines, the author places exclusive reliance upon opium in the first stage of developed cholera. Not a word does he say of calomel and the thousand other remedies vaunted as specifics in this stage, in doing which he displays that wisdom which results from a careful study of the results of treatment in epidemic cholera. In addition, he lays down the important precept to keep the patient perfectly at rest, and give him very small quantities at a time of cold water, and occasionally a little spirit.

Nothing can be simpler than the treatment of this terrible disease; that is to say, in no other disease are the limits of medical power more distinctly marked, or the agents through which it can be exercised more definitely known.

Among the symptoms of acute general peritonitis, one is mentioned which has not, we think, been noticed by writers upon this subject. We allude to priapism, which was first described as a symptom of the disease by Dr. Rogers, of Louisville, and of which the author himself observed two examples. We met with it a year ago in a case of peritonitis from intestinal perforation, but at the time regarded it as a merely accidental phenomenon. Cold is admitted to be a cause of this disease, although not a frequent one, and reference is made to the liability to its attacks of persons who are obliged to work immersed in cold water. On the other hand, rheumatism limited to the abdominal muscles, it is said, must be exceedingly rare. We should be disposed, rather, to adopt the converse of these propositions as true. We have seen very many cases of muscular rheumatism of the abdominal walls, and never but one which had any claim to be considered simple idiopathic peritonitis; and even in that case the discharge of a hog's bristle per anum, in our judgment, set the claim aside. In one word, we believe, with Habershon, that peritonitis is *never* idiopathic in its origin. It is to be suspected that not a few cases of peritonitis, regarded as idiopathic, were really examples of epidemic erysipelatous peritonitis, which was first described as it occurred among children, by Abercrombie, we believe. In the treatment of acute peritonitis the author rejects the use of depletion, purging, and mercurials, and relies on opium alone, for which we are certainly not disposed to censure him, believing, as we do, that this single medicine secures all of the good which is attained by the compound treatment into which it enters along with the first mentioned agents. His remarks upon this subject will repay the reader's attention.

The article on Ascites, or, as it is called by the author, Hydro-Peritoneum, is a very excellent and practical one; but we take exception decidedly to his speaking of the operation for its relief, paracentesis abdominis, as a "trivial one," and of its repetitions as "innocuous." In not a few cases acute peritonitis follows this operation; it is painful, and to persons of sensibility it has a shocking appearance. Still it is often imperatively necessary. A modification of it is sometimes possible, when the integument covering the umbilicus becomes gradually distended in the form of a round fluctuating tumour. A painless puncture with a sharp lancet then suffices for the evacuation of the fluid. In a case of this sort we performed the operation nearly thirty times during two years before the patient's death. Neither our author, nor other contemporaneous writers, so far as we know, allude to this possible alternative for the more painful procedure; but it is referred to in one of the Society Memoirs published in Great Britain in the last century.

The chapters on Diseases of the Liver require no particular notice except as being written with the most recent light thrown upon the subject, and as containing a protest against mercury as the specific remedy for hepatic disease. While denying it this virtue, the author falls into the error of regarding the usual brown colour of feces as produced by the presence of biliary colouring matter. If this were so the contents of the ileum should be darker than those of the colon, whereas the reverse is the case, as every one knows.

Congestion of the Brain is first considered among diseases affecting the

Nervous System. The author is of opinion that experimenters have fallen into a gross error in concluding that the cranium always contains the same quantity of blood, and that congestion expresses not a positive increase of blood in that cavity, but only a relative disproportion between the arterial and venous blood. He might have cited, in this connection, the cases and experiments used to illustrate the physical condition of the brain during sleep, and which show that the most ordinary and tranquil excitement causes the brain to project from its bony case wherever resistance is removed. In another place, speaking of meningeal apoplexy, he might have referred to the remarkable case of the great statesman, Daniel Webster, in whom a membraniform fibrinous coagulum, resulting from a violent fall, covered the convexity of the brain for many months before his death, and with but little disturbance of his extraordinary intellect. The whole of the article on apoplexy appears to us logical and sound, and none the less so that it does not offer solutions of some of those knotty questions which concern functional and physical diseases of the brain and their distinctive phenomena. As might be expected, the author would restrict the use of blood-letting in apoplexy within very narrow limits. He points out accurately the conditions which contraindicate it, without so explicitly denoting those which call for its use. Yet he says plainly that if the attack be due to active congestion, and the heart be acting with normal power, the life of the patient may depend upon the prompt abstraction of blood; or again, if venous congestion of the face is marked, if the pulse be full, and no paralysis exist, bleeding should be employed. These conditions call imperatively for bleeding; but there are many, more or less compounded of these, and with paralysis, which will scarcely be benefited without it. Tact and judgment are never more necessary than here; but we are of opinion that in doubtful cases it is safer to bleed. The immediate effects, closely watched, will generally show whether the operation tends to good or evil.

The article on Sunstroke gives a fair exposition of the different pathological conditions which bear this name in common. A remark is quoted from a reporter of numerous cases of the affection, that a large proportion were attacked shortly after dinner, which would seem to imply some relation of cause and effect between the two events. As the period mentioned is precisely the hottest of the day, it is perfectly natural that the morbid effects of heat should then be most severe.

The article on Tuberculous Meningitis is, perhaps, proportioned in extent to the whole Treatise, but it is much less complete than would be desirable. The author is disposed to refuse a tuberculous nature to the minute granulations which are found in the membranes of the brain after death from this affection; but, as he elsewhere appears to regard as tubercles, even in the lung, only the crude yellow bodies, so called, his judgment must be accepted with this understanding. He does not even indicate a plan of treatment, doubtless because he regards the "termination as almost invariably, if not invariably, fatal." This is a more unfavourable view of the subject than appears to be warranted by medical records.

Cerebro-spinal Meningitis is treated of under its appropriate name, or, at least, under a more proper one than the popular title *spotted fever*, a title which was bestowed upon it by the vulgar during its first epidemic appearance in this country, but which was even then condemned as inapplicable to the disease by all physicians of authority who described it. It is to be regretted that the author does not appear to have been acquainted with the great mass of facts contributed to the history of this

affection, both abroad and at home, and especially with those belonging to the first recorded epidemic of the disease in this country between 1809 and 1815, and some of the more complete histories published of its recent appearance, among which should be noticed that of Dr. Upham relating to an epidemic in North Carolina, the fullest account by far of its symptoms and lesions. He refers to an article, by an ingenious author, in which its identity with typhus is advocated. This has also been done in England by Dr. Murchison, who does not seem, however, to have found any one to agree with him. In his elaborate and almost exhaustive treatise on fevers, not a word is to be met with in the history of typhus which even suggests the possibility of cerebro-spinal inflammation occurring as a complication, even the most occasional, of that disease. Indeed, he now confesses as much, and claims to have been enlightened by the occurrence of several cases of typhus in which the symptoms of such an inflammation were met with. Now, it may fairly be asked which is the more probable—that no writer on typhus, since the days of Huxham, should have described cases of that disease with cerebro-spinal symptoms, or that Dr. Murchison should have exaggerated the importance of the lesions occasionally found within the cranium in typhus fever? It is well known that in many cases of typhus there is a profuse secretion of serum beneath the cerebral membranes, and more or less cloudiness of these latter. But there is a world-wide difference between these results of, for the most part, exaggerated functional activity, with imbibition of serum by the macerated membranes, and the effusion of inflammatory lymph and pus which is characteristic of cerebro-spinal meningitis. Dr. Mayne, of Dublin, we imagine, was as familiar as possible with typhus; but when, in 1846, he encountered an epidemic of cerebro-spinal meningitis, he at once recognized it as a different disease, and called it by its proper name. So, too, did Dr. Law in 1849 and 1866. They also pointed out one distinguishing feature, which, for Irish practitioners, must alone have been sufficient to prove the disease a different one from typhus; it was not propagated by contagion. Dr. Murchison knows, as well as any man living, that this statement, if well grounded, is fatal to his notion that the epidemic in question is a form of typhus fever, and he, therefore, strives to refute it, by showing that certain of the epidemics occurred under the same circumstances as those in which typhus appears. Nothing can be more inaccurate than this. If the disease has sometimes shown itself in crowded barracks, and even been confined to them, in numerous other cases it has prevailed in the most healthy localities, and attacked indiscriminately the poor and the rich, those who were the worst and those who were the best provided with the comforts of life. Such has been eminently the case in this country. Dr. Murchison suggests that the occurrence of typhus fever and of cerebro-spinal meningitis in the United States during the late war favours the opinion of their community of origin and identity of nature; but while typhus was generated to some, and indeed a very slight, extent by crowding, bad ventilation, and filth during the war, the other disease commenced several years before the war; commenced in the midst of peace and plenty, and in places as salubrious, by situation and the character of their inhabitants, as any in the world; began in New England, and then took fresh starting-points in Central and Western New York, whence it gradually advanced southeastwardly along the valleys of the Alleghanies, poured over Eastern Pennsylvania and Middle New Jersey, and down through the Atlantic States to North Carolina. It also extended westward along the borders of the great lakes to

Chicago. But it did not cross the mountains, or accompany the ceaseless caravan of human beings, citizens, and soldiers that filled the great highway through Pennsylvania; nor did it yield to the attraction of the crowded, squalid, and filthy portion of the population of New York City, as typhus must inevitably have done. In fact, its ravages, in proportion to the population among which it prevailed, were greater in salubrious country neighbourhoods than in large cities; and even in these, as in Philadelphia, its victims, so far from being found in almost the only localities where typhus has ever prevailed, in the negro district and in the almshouse, were selected from among the classes who live in plenty, and in the cleanest and most airy streets, and from among individuals who had everything in their persons and in their surroundings to secure health and long life.

Nor is the indirect proof derived from its non-contagiousness less weighty as an argument against its identity with, or even its affiliation to typhus. Of all who have written upon the subject from actual observation, whether among those who studied the first or the last epidemic in this country, or among those who have published the results of their accurate observations in Europe, not a single one has pronounced the disease contagious. Even the latest evidence that has reached us, Prof. Niemeyer's description of epidemic cerebro-spinal meningitis in the Grand Duchy of Baden, and the report presented to Parliament, by Dr. John Burdon Sanderson, on the disease as it prevailed about the lower Vistula, afford not the slightest countenance to such a belief, but, on the contrary, explicitly refute it. And shall we, then, be told that such a disease, which every one competent to express an opinion pronounces to be incommunicable by contagion, is identical with typhus fever, the most contagious disease in the world except smallpox?

It were easy to demonstrate that typhus and cerebro-spinal meningitis are diseases of widely different symptoms, whether considered in their entire course, or in respect to their individual phenomena. But we have room to notice only two or three. The characteristic mulberry rash of typhus is familiarly known to be a true exanthem, on its first appearance elevated slightly above the surface of the skin, and disappearing under pressure. It is only at a later period that this eruption, which may readily be mistaken for that of measles, is converted into petechiæ, that is to say, into spots which are really ecchymoses, and which no longer pale or disappear when pressed upon.

The eruption of spinal meningitis, is petechial from the first, *i. e.*, is formed of true ecchymoses in the tissue of the skin, and at no period of its existence changes under pressure. In other words, it presents precisely the appearances of the ecchymoses which characterize a large number of blood diseases, and even phlegmasiæ of a low type. Moreover, this eruption, such as it is, is so far from belonging essentially to the disease that it is present in less than one-half of the cases. In the United States, where it has most frequently been met with, this proportion perhaps overstates the truth; while in many European epidemics its occurrence must have been quite exceptional, for it is not even mentioned by their historians, and another but almost insignificant eruption, herpes labialis, is given as the sole cutaneous phenomenon, and even as being a distinctive characteristic of the affection.

Another phenomenon presents so striking a contrast to the symptoms of typhus, that its mere mention will be almost sufficient, *viz.*, opisthotonos. In no treatise upon typhus fever is this symptom even so much as mentioned as belonging to that disease, not even in the work of Dr. Murchison,

nor even in his more recent communications where he claims the existence of meningitis as an occasional complication of typhus.

The only other point to which we shall allude out of many that present themselves, is the state of the blood in the two affections. In typhus it is well known the blood is darker and more liquid than natural, and the proportion of its fibrin is diminished in a marked degree. But the analyses which have been made of this fluid in cerebro-spinal meningitis exhibit a very different character. In the examinations by Dr. Ames, during the Montgomery epidemic, the proportion of fibrin varied between 3.64 and 6.40 in a thousand parts; and during the epidemic of 1840-41, at Strasbourg, Dr. Tourdes found the proportion of this constituent of the blood to vary between 3.90 and 5.63. In each case, therefore, the minimum proportion of fibrin was greater than the average proportion of that constituent in healthy blood. The blood in cerebro-spinal meningitis, then, resembles that of an inflammatory disease, and not that of a toxæmic condition like typhus. The petechiæ and vibices, which occur in a minority of the cases, and which appear to have suggested the idea of its relationship to typhus fever, are not characteristic of typhus fever alone, nor even of those forms of disease alone in which the typhoid type predominates. On the contrary, they are far more strongly marked in scurvy and in purpura, in neither of which does this type present itself, unless in exceptional cases. In the former, at least, the proportion of fibrin is above the normal standard.

We might carry this demonstration further did it seem necessary to render the argument more complete; we might even prove that cerebro-spinal meningitis does not present the typhoid state in a majority of the cases; and, indeed, very rarely in those which terminate favourably. It would seem that the phenomena of this state, occurring in connection with petechiæ and ecchymoses, have led some persons into the error which we have endeavoured to expose. But neither that state nor any special appearance of the skin is characteristic of the disease. Many cases, towards the close of each annual epidemic of meningitis, have presented this condition in previous epidemics as well as in the existing one. Even while writing, we have under our care a lady of robust health who, without the slightest premonition, was attacked shortly after breakfast with so violent a pain, shooting from the nape of the neck through to the forehead, that, although a person of remarkable fortitude, she shrieked with anguish. Her sight became affected; there was slight strabismus, with pain and stiffness along the spine, neuralgic pains in the limbs, and obstinate vomiting for many hours. Profuse depletion by cups and purgatives was used with good effect; blisters to the spine, and opium and quinia were subsequently prescribed, followed at a later period by the iodide of potassium. Three weeks have been required to establish full convalescence. Now, in this case, there was neither delirium nor coma, and not the slightest trace of discoloration, nor any excessive heat of the skin. Will it be pretended that this was a case of typhus fever?

Still more recently, and while these pages were passing through the press, a female was brought into our wards at St. Joseph's Hospital, of whom the following account was obtained. She was about twenty years of age, of large and well developed frame, and had a remarkably clear skin. While hanging clothes out to dry, she was attacked suddenly with a severe pain in the head. Soon afterwards, she was carried to the hospital, where her chief complaint was excruciating pain in the head and back of the neck, and this, rather than coma or delirium, rendered it somewhat difficult to communi-

cate with her. From the first, her head was strongly retracted, and her hands, and, ultimately, both the upper and lower extremities, were mottled as if by venous congestion. There was no eruption whatever. She lay, by preference, in a prone position; her pulse was about 100; her skin warm, but not hot; her abdomen was not tympanitic, and her bowels were confined. She died at the end of a week; and half an hour before death, she was not comatose, but understood what was said to her; she was then unable to swallow. There was neither convulsion nor paralysis. On examination, 24 hours after death, the dependent portions of the body were deeply purple, but the anterior surface was perfectly pale. The upper surface of the brain was unusually dry, but the veins were turgid. At the vertex, on both sides of the longitudinal sinus, there existed strong adhesions by lymph. A deposit of semitransparent and very firm lymph existed upon the optic commissure, and extended, but less in thickness, over the pons Varolii and along the front of the medulla oblongata. It ceased at the cervical portion of the cord, but here the membrane was dull and clouded. Lymph existed also in the fissure of Sylvius, on either side. The central cavity of the brain contained but little fluid; but the right optic thalamus was pulpy, and the left softer than natural. There were no tubercles. The blood was quite destitute of coagula, and the inner surface of the spinal canal was stained almost black.

We cannot quit this subject without adverting to the fact that the successive epidemics of meningitis have occurred almost simultaneously in the United States and Europe. While, during 1814-15, it was touching its decline in this country, it prevailed in the South of France. The most extensive epidemic of it in France, Italy, Algiers, Gibraltar, &c., from 1838 to 1847, had its counterpart in the epidemic of our southwestern States, between 1842 and 1850. So, while the disease spread through this country from 1857 to the present time, several local epidemics of it occurred in Germany and in Ireland between 1863 and 1866.

But we must hasten on. The different forms of paralysis are treated of concisely, and very clearly considering the difficulties inherent in the subject, and the conflicting results of clinical experience, and still more of physiological experiments. A very curious case is related of permanent paralysis of the sensibility of the rectum and anus following a fall upon the buttocks; yet there was no paraplegia, no paralysis of the bladder, nor any impairment of the sexual function. Under "hemiplegia" the difficulties which involve the diagnosis of its proximate cause are very well described, and consequently those which environ its prognosis. Thus, although the author describes a *functional* hemiplegia, which he admits to be rare, the existence of such an affection must be inferential only. However that may be, it is certain that cases of paralysis sometimes occur, and that not in hysterical, nervous, or even young, persons, which have every aspect, at first, of a central and organic origin, but which speedily and perfectly recover. Two cases are related, both of old men, in which, without any appreciable cause, more or less complete hemiplegia occurred, but disappeared entirely in the course of a few days. A similar case recently occurred in our own practice. A gentleman nearly seventy years old, but originally of a vigorous constitution, consulted us for dyspeptic symptoms, and slight, but general, muscular rheumatism. While examining him, a marked irregularity of the pulse was observed, and on ausculting the heart its impulse was feeble, and its first sound wanting in clearness. A week later, all of these phenomena had disappeared, and the usual health

seemed restored. A few mornings afterwards, while performing his ablutions, he suddenly found himself deprived of power in the left arm, and that of the left leg was slightly impaired. On attempting to call, he was unable to articulate, and swallowing was almost impossible. The paralysis diminished within one hour sufficiently to permit the patient to travel some ten miles, by steamboat, to the city. When we visited him, it had still further abated, and the speech was perfectly intelligible. Nevertheless, remembering the symptoms on his previous visit, we were disposed to feel apprehensive of the result, and therefore enjoined great circumspection. In the course of three days, however, hardly a trace of the paralytic seizure remained. In this, and in our author's cases, we should be inclined to suspect the temporary obstruction of an artery by a coagulum or embolus.

A remark is made under "Paraplegia" which has an important medico-legal bearing, viz., that "complete paraplegia, affecting both sensation and motion, is not incompatible with sexual passion and procreative power." An exceedingly interesting illustration of this statement is given at p. 573. Progressive locomotor ataxia is briefly, but clearly, described. A singular case is referred to—

"Which was under observation for several years at Bellevue Hospital. Whenever the patient attempted any volitional acts, the contortions of the limbs and body were such that he appeared to be performing for the surprise and amusement of the spectators, and it was difficult at first for the medical class to repress manifestations of mirth."

These words accurately describe a case which, in our student days, was under treatment at the Pennsylvania Hospital, where it was regarded as a case of chorea.

The functional nervous affections are discussed by the author with great plainness, and, as we think, with precision and accuracy; neuralgia, epilepsy, and hysteria occupying the largest space. Two very interesting cases of hysterical coma, or trance, are given, the first of which is singular from its occurrence in a male. The article on delirium tremens is a very good one; but it confounds this term with *mania à potu*. The former is a consequence of the withdrawal of alcoholic drinks; the latter is the direct effect of continued and excessive indulgence in them, and is synonymous with *delirium ebriosum*. The precepts for their treatment are, for the most part, sound. We especially agree with the statement as to the utility of muscular exercise carried to the point of fatigue. When it can be systematically used, neither opium, nor tartar emetic, nor, still less, digitalis, will be required, and alcohol very sparingly. The worst possible treatment of the disease is to shut its victim in his chamber.

Diseases of the urinary organs are treated of rather briefly; but of albuminuria, a full, accurate, and very interesting account is given. The same may be said of diabetes. A case is mentioned of the spontaneous cure of this disease, which is usually regarded as inevitably fatal. We have under observation a similar case, in which enormous quantities of sugar in the urine were replaced by an equally large proportion of urea, which also ultimately declined nearly to the normal standard.

The concluding section, devoted to fevers and other general diseases, is one of the best in the work. The labours of the author in this field are so well known, that any detailed account of them here may be dispensed with. It is hardly necessary to state that he adopts a humoral pathology, as alone sufficient to explain the phenomena of these diseases. This, which was long ago an admitted principle, for a time became heretical, but once more occu-

pies its place in the orthodox medical creed. Febricula, or ephemeral fever, is confounded by the author with simple continued fever, which is a very different affection, and one which is often mistaken for mild typhoid fever. The consideration of typhus is not sufficiently separated from that of typhoid fever, particularly as the author is at pains to point out, as he does very clearly, although too briefly, their non-identity. In his statement that "neither typhus nor typhoid fever, as a rule, is experienced twice," he places the two diseases on the same level in this respect, and improperly, as we conceive; for while the recurrence of typhus is not uncommon, a second attack of typhoid fever is extremely rare. In the treatment of typhus, the author infers, from comparative trials which he made, that the administration of sulphuric acid is capable of diminishing the mortality of the disease nearly one-half. Other acids were used by various other physicians, with alleged benefit, which was attributed to the action of the medicine in counteracting the alkalinity of the blood. We should imagine that the removal of an effect is not very apt to destroy, or even to influence, a cause. If the acids do good, a more reasonable supposition, we think, ought to be invoked to explain it. The author advises the administration of tartar emetic in the active delirium of typhus, in imitation of Dr. Graves. But he does not recommend doses more than half as large as those prescribed by the great Dublin physician. It is perhaps not irrelevant to notice that in most of the cases in which Dr. Graves employed this medicine, leeching and purging had previously been used, the head had been shaved, and the neck blistered; and also to inquire whether the delirium was not, in some degree at least, due to the evacuant and exhausting treatment. It may also be inquired whether the cold douche or the warm bath would not have been more efficient and less hazardous? The author furnishes some exceedingly gratifying statements regarding the beneficial influence of pure air in the treatment of continued fevers, and illustrates them by results obtained during the late civil war. While describing the incomparable benefits of alcohol in these affections, he is careful to warn against its premature employment. The customary mode is often more injurious than useful. Nature is overstimulated while she is still competent to her task; and when, at last, exhaustion overtakes her, stimulants are unavailing to arouse her. A doubt is expressed as to whether "erysipelas" is a correct synonym for the epidemic disease known as "black tongue," inasmuch as the eruption is very far from constant; indeed, it occurs in only one-sixth of the cases. The criticism appears to be well grounded. Among the contrasts between yellow and remittent fever, one is omitted by the author which appears to us of primary importance. The former disease prevails exclusively in localities bordering upon salt water, the latter in the neighbourhood of fresh water chiefly. The eruptive fevers are fully and accurately described. The communicability of scarlatina by the sick and by fomites is very positively maintained, and several striking illustrations of it are presented. This opinion agrees with that of the most authoritative of recent writers upon the subject, but it is strongly dissented from by others. The article on diphtheria is remarkable for its excellence. It is curious to observe how the author, in common with nearly all judicious practitioners, rejects local applications, except as palliatives, notwithstanding the scarcely qualified eulogy which they once received from such eminent physicians as Bretonnean and Trousseau. He adopts the more rational and approved method of sustaining the system until the morbid process against which it is contending is exhausted. Articles on rheumatism, gout, scurvy, and purpura close the volume.

In the review which we now bring somewhat abruptly to a conclusion, we have abounded in criticism rather than in eulogy. This we should not have ventured to do, had not the defects, in proportion to the merits, of the work before us, been so minute. The latter speak for themselves, and will readily be appreciated by the judicious reader; the former might pass unperceived or uncorrected, and so tend to damage the author's reputation for certain admirable qualities as a medical teacher, which a just estimate of his treatise cannot fail to confirm.

A. S.

ART. XXI.—*The Transactions of the American Medical Association.*
Instituted 1847. Vol. XVI. 8vo. pp. 869.

It has been suggested—and the suggestion comes to us from many quarters—that the putting forth annually by the American Medical Association of its bulky volume of *Transactions* may not be productive of an amount of good to the profession and of credit to the Association, by any means adequate to the labour and expense incident to its publication. It is very certain that the series of sixteen volumes that have appeared comprise a number of reports of a highly interesting character, with many scientific and practical papers of unquestionable value. Nevertheless, were a selection to be made for publication from among the several reports and essays read annually before the Association, by a committee, of which the members shall have the requisite talents and information, and sufficient independence of character to act with impartiality, a volume might be issued, each year, more creditable to the Association and more useful to its members as a work of reference. It is true that, by this plan, the yearly volume of *Transactions* would be very considerably diminished in bulk; but in the same proportion it would, we are satisfied, be increased in intrinsic value. The Association was not organized for the preparation and publication of mere compilations on different medical topics, and these compilations not always prepared by those who are the best qualified by talents and experience to separate the true from the false—the established from the conjectural—in theory or in practice. The leading objects of its organization were of a much higher character—to secure a uniform and more enlarged and efficient standard of medical education throughout the country; to promote a greater originality and independence in our medical literature; to excite a spirit of original and cautious investigation, whether for the purpose of testing the validity of received views and modes of practice, or for the development of new truths in one or all the branches of medical science and medical art; and of arriving, if possible, at a more intimate and complete knowledge of epidemic, zymotic, and endemic diseases.

The address of the President, Dr. N. S. Davis, of Chicago, Ill., in the present volume, is a very able, business-like paper. Its main subjects are a sketch of the past history, the present organization, and future prospects of the Association. The suggestions thrown out by Dr. D., in the discussion of the latter two questions, as to the proper sphere of operation for the Association, and the means best adapted to increase its influence for good, and insure its permanency, are pertinent and practical, and demand the careful consideration of all its true friends.

Following the Address is a report, by Dr. A. Fisher, on the use of the sulphites of lime and soda as remedial agents. The original report was presented at the meeting of the Association in 1865, but being by accident omitted from the printed *Transactions* of that year, an additional series of facts and observations have been added to it, and the report inserted in the volume before us. As the subject of the report has recently attracted some attention, we give the general conclusions to which the author has been led from personal observation.

"1. That the sulphites of soda and lime can be given to patients suffering from zymotic diseases, in large quantities, and continued for a long time without producing deleterious effects.

"2. That, in accordance with Dr. Polli's experiments, the sulphurous acid is disengaged from the alkaline base in the system, permeating it in every part, thereby preventing fermentation or decomposition of the blood.

"3. That they do not destroy or decompose the poison in the system, but prevent its deleterious action on the blood, and consequently the tissues, until it is eliminated from the system.

"4. That the quantity prescribed should be in proportion to the malignancy of the disease; that is, the more hopeless and malignant the case, the greater should be the quantity administered in a certain time.

"5. That these remedies should not be too suddenly withheld in bad cases, but continued until the poison is carried out of the system by the emunctories.

"6. That the effect of these remedies, in well-marked cases of blood-poisoning, is imperceptible for the first few hours, but by continuing them for a day or two, the secretions become improved, and the patient is relieved of the morbid symptoms.

"7. That these remedies will not cure inflammation of an organ already established, though in cases where they are indicated, they prevent the deleterious effect of the poison until the inflammation subsides, or is relieved by appropriate remedies.

"8. That the use of these agents will not prevent the use of other remedies indicated in the particular case, unless chemically incompatible.

"9. That these remedies are generally well retained on the stomach, though the dose is large, and the sulphurous taste is disagreeable to some patients.

"10. That the more malignant and hopeless the case, the more perceptible and satisfactory will be the effects of these agents, unless the case is beyond the reach of remedies."

Among the reports presented to the Section on Practical Medicine and Obstetrics is a very elaborate one on the causation, course, and treatment of insanity in women, by Dr. H. R. Storer, of Boston, Surgeon to the New England Hospital for women, etc. etc. The report includes many questions of the deepest importance to all who are interested in the subject of mental derangement as it presents itself in the female.

The leading object of the present report is to establish the truth of the following positions, advanced by Dr. S. in a paper published in the preceding volume of the *Transactions* of the Association, namely:—

I. That in women mental disease is often, perhaps generally, dependent upon functional or organic disease of the reproductive organs.

II. That in women the access or exacerbation of mental disease is usually coincident with the catamenia, periodical access, temporary suppression, and final cessation.

III. And, therefore, that the rational and successful treatment of mental disease in women must be based upon the preceding propositions, which Dr. S. claims to have established; 1st, by many analogies, anatomical, physiological, and pathological, in the cerebral manifestations of the human female and that of the lower mammals; 2d, by clinical observation, and by

the results of autopsies of the insane, both in private practice and when made with equal care and impartiality in insane asylums.

That Dr. S. has succeeded in establishing the fact that insanity in the female has, very frequently, its origin in her uterine system we scarcely believe will be doubted by any one who will carefully and candidly weigh and analyze the vast amount of evidence he has adduced in support of his position. The truth of that position being admitted, it follows as a necessary consequence that in the treatment of insanity in the female, in many instances, means of a direct and physical character will be demanded.

It is not our intention to attempt an analysis of the report before us, nor to enter upon any special criticism of the views advanced by Dr. S. To accomplish the first in such a manner as would do full justice to the author and furnish to our readers any satisfactory idea of the labours of Dr. S. and of the amount and character of the evidence advanced by him in support of the conclusions at which he has arrived, would occupy a space in this Journal far greater than could be afforded; while, in a critical examination of the report, we should perchance find ourselves compelled to differ somewhat from the author in respect to certain of his views on a few of the questions involved in the general subject of the causation and treatment of insanity in the female, yet in respect to his leading proposition that, in a large proportion of the cases of insanity in women her sex is to be considered the exciting or the continuing cause of the malady, and that, consequently, in our treatment of insanity in the female our attention must be directed to the condition of her uterine system with the view of detecting and removing any abnormal condition which may there exist, our only criticism would be an expression of our entire assent to the truth of the views advanced by the author, adding to the evidence he has adduced in their support that of our own personal experience. We have repeatedly been able to trace insanity in the female, of a most decided character, to displacements and disease of the womb, and in not a few cases have seen it materially improved or entirely and permanently disappear where we were able to restore the uterus to its normal position or remove the disease of which it was the seat. We wish to be distinctly understood as by no means referring insanity in the female invariably to morbid conditions of the uterine organs. Even when the insanity is traceable to this source, the trouble in the sexual organs will, we believe, be found to act, not as the original cause of the mental affection, but merely as one of the sources through which an inherent predisposition, hereditary or acquired, is excited into action.

Four papers were presented to the Section of Medical Jurisprudence and Hygiene. Of three of these the subject is smallpox and vaccination. We have first the report of a Committee on the Value and Necessity of Vaccination and Revaccination for the Eradication of Smallpox. This report is one of deep interest, not merely to the medical profession, but to the public at large. The conclusions at which the committee have arrived are in the main correct, and are sustained by a mass of evidence the most convincing. Effectual vaccination with pure matter in early infancy, and revaccination at a later period and upon the occurrence in any locality of variola, are, most unquestionably, not only the sole means for the prevention of smallpox, but means invariably effective. For many years, and in various ways, we have endeavoured to enforce upon physicians of our own State, and upon the public generally, the importance of the views so ably set forth in the present report.

In the report on the Propriety and Necessity of Compulsory Vaccination, by Dr. J. M. Toner, the views set forth are sound and appropriate, especially in regard to those things an attention to which is absolutely necessary in order to secure a permanent and effective vaccination. But the main subject embraced in the title of the report appears to have been entirely lost sight of. No series of arguments are adduced to establish either the propriety or the necessity of compulsory vaccination—a subject of vast importance in a sanitary and medico-political point of view.

The paper on Smallpox, its Pathology and Treatment, by Dr. A. Nebinger, of Philadelphia, would seem to be entirely out of place; it belongs properly to the section of practical medicine, and not to that of medical jurisprudence and hygiene. But, wherever placed, it will be found to be an essay of some interest and practical importance. Dr. N. does not believe smallpox to be *essentially* an inflammatory affection—any threatening or destructive inflammation which may spring up in its course he believes to be merely accidental. He considers smallpox, at its height, to be essentially and radically “a suppurative disease.” In other words, that it is a malady in which a larger or smaller quantity of pus is generated, accordingly as the attack is more or less severe, and that as a consequence of this generation of pus and the effort of nature to “throw off the diseased portions of the tissues attacked,” an erythema or inflammation in the tissues involved, is required to be set up, in order to the successful, perfect, and safe development of the disease, and its passage through its several and oft-times severe and exhausting stages. As a direct deduction from this view of the pathology of smallpox, Dr. N. considers that the treatment of the disease should be “compensative”—As there is a large demand for “plasma” there should be, therefore, a large supply of highly nutritive aliment, with, occasionally, the addition of some alcoholic stimulant. During the initiative or febrile and papular stages of the disease, Dr. N. prescribes an antiphlogistic regimen and treatment—dietetic and medicinal—and only abandons this treatment for one more nutritive and stimulant so soon as pustulation commences.

That variola is due to the presence of a specific morbid poison in the blood we believe there can be no question. This poison nature makes an effort—often successfully—to eliminate from the system by the excretories of the skin and mucous membrane. As the poison is determined to the surface it gives rise there to a crop of pustules, more or less copious. The fewer of these pustules that make their appearance the milder and less dangerous is the case. It must be evident, therefore, that the treatment appropriate to smallpox is such a one as, while it favours the elimination of the variolous poison from the system, will at the same time diminish the tendency to excessive pustulation. This during the first stage should, to some extent, be antiphlogistic. But, during the suppurative stage, as it has been termed, there cannot be a doubt on the mind of any experienced practitioner that a sustaining diet is very generally if not invariably demanded, in some cases the addition also of tonics and stimulants, in order to promote healthy nutrition and prevent the occurrence of that condition of the tissues which under slight abnormal stimulation has a tendency to promote the formation of pus globules and give rise to even a general pyæmic condition of the system. Dr. N. is in some of his expressions incautious and inexact; this has caused his views of the pathology and treatment of smallpox to be misunderstood and in consequence condemned.

The remaining paper from the Section of Medical Jurisprudence and

Hygiene is by Dr. A. N. Bell, of Brooklyn, N. Y., being the report of the Committee on the Introduction of Disease by Commerce, and the Means for its Prevention.

The report refers to the now fully established fact that diseases spread from their usual places of origin and prevalence only under certain favourable circumstances, and to such localities only as are characterized by meteorological and other conditions closely resembling those in which they have become domiciled. These conditions, it is remarked, have the relation to the diseases produced of remote causes, and are, in general, immutable. Wherever they habitually exist, there, of all places, are to be found exciting causes most likely to usher in an epidemic. When an epidemic is thus once planted, its diffusion by atmospheric agencies is coextensive with the locality and duration of certain favourable climatic conditions. In proof of the correctness of these positions, Dr. B. points to the histories of the three great epidemics, the plague, the cholera, and the yellow fever, which are ordinarily to be found in their greatest intensity, at certain seasons, at the three prominent deltas of the Nile, the Ganges, and the Mississippi, all three deltas having certain leading attributes in common. A rapid sketch is given of some of the more noted and best described of the epidemics of plague, cholera, and yellow fever, showing their rise in certain localities, and their portation from place to place by means of a certain miasm, proper to each, and carried by ships or persons along the great routes of commerce and travel, not visiting every locality along their route, but those only whose atmosphere is in a certain condition as to heat, moisture, and circulation, and loaded with products susceptible, under the influence of the miasm referred to, of undergoing a poisonous transformation. Through the free, elastic, and unpolluted atmosphere of high, dry, and cleanly districts, the miasm, whether of plague, cholera, or yellow fever, migrates silently, unproductive of disease; there the material it is capable of transforming into poison has no existence. In concluding his inquiry into the localizing conditions and meteorological influences governing the introduction of disease by commerce, and the indications for its prevention, Dr. B. remarks:—

“In regard to certain regions and places of great magnitude, where the causes and conditions of epidemics are indigenous, or have become thoroughly acclimated, there appears, indeed, to be but one remedy, viz., to keep as clear of such places during the dangerous season as possible. But, in regard to other localities, where any of the conditions are artificial, our duty is clear—attack the removable causes—do away with epidemic foci, on the one hand by civic cleanliness, and prevent the introduction of disease, on the other, by disinfection.”

In the report of the Section on Surgery is embraced a most interesting and instructive paper by Dr. J. Mason Warren, of Boston, on fissure of the soft and hard palate, with a notice of the writer's very important modification of the operation of staphyloraphy as practised for the relief especially of fissure of the soft palate. In cases of extreme fissure, extending far into or through the palatine bones, Dr. W. considers that it is generally sufficient to operate for the restoration of the soft palate and the back part only of the hard palate, leaving the anterior extremity to be covered by a palatine plate, such as is ordinarily used in mounting teeth. To prove that the whole fissure in the bones can be closed by an operation, even in very bad cases, Dr. W. refers to his earlier published cases. Of late years, however, his judgment has become more and more decided against its necessity in the majority of cases seen by the surgeon.

From Dr. L. A. Sayre, of New York, we have an interesting communication on the mechanical treatment of chronic inflammation of the joints of the lower extremities, with a description of some new apparatus for producing extension at the knee and ankle-joints. The immense advantage derived by patients with disease of the hip-joint, since the introduction of mechanical appliances which allow of exercise without discontinuing the extension, has suggested the introduction of similar apparatus in the diseased conditions of the other articulations of the lower limbs, and the paper of Dr. S. is to show the practical value of this principle of treatment in the affections of the knee and ankle-joint, even when these affections have extended to suppuration and caries, and to illustrate it by the narration of cases which have come under his personal observation, with a description of the extension apparatus employed. We shall attempt no analysis of Dr. S.'s paper, as in the case of the preceding paper, to do justice to the author and convey any useful information to our readers, we should be obliged to extend our analysis to a length our limits would not admit. Besides, the text of Dr. S. would scarcely be intelligible without the aid of the illustrations with which it is interspersed.

A case of exsection of the wrist-joint is related by Dr. S. H. Tewksbury, of Portland, Me. Dr. T. is convinced that the results of this operation will compare favourably with the results of exsections of larger joints, and, when the operation shall be more extensively practised with the improvements which will unquestionably be made both in it and in the subsequent treatment, they will furnish statistics of as favourable a character, and be entitled, as other exsections now are, to an honourable and favourable recognition by the profession.

Dr. H. D. Putney relates a case of dislocation of the sternal end of the clavicle, and describes a new apparatus for retaining its reduction. For a description and drawing of the apparatus we must refer our readers to the paper itself.

In a paper by Dr. B. Haskell, of Rockport, Mass., he has attempted, by comparing the experiments of Bell, Mayo, and others, with more recent independent series of observations connected with the three great divisions of the fifth nerve—its ophthalmic, its superior maxillary, and its inferior maxillary, to show that the doctrine which refers motion and sensation to distinct sets of nerves is not founded in fact. We see nothing strictly original in the exposition of Dr. H.

The report of the Section on Meteorology, Medical Topography, and Epidemic Diseases embraces two well-drawn up and voluminous reports, one on the climatology and epidemic diseases of Connecticut, by Dr. B. H. Catlin, of Meridan, Conn.; the other on the medical topography and epidemics of California, by Dr. Thomas Logan, of Sacramento, Cal.

In the first of these reports will be found an able and interesting history of spotted fever from its first appearance in Connecticut, in the spring of 1807, with its symptomatology and treatment. In the report of Dr. Logan we would call attention to the account given of what has been termed in California mountain-fever, and to the remarks of Dr. L. upon malarial fevers in general.

The two following papers are first, the report of the Committee appointed to Memorialize Congress in regard to the Medical Department of the Army; and second, a report of the Committee on the Rank of the Medical Officers of the Navy. Neither of these reports calls for any special comment at our hands. The merits of the important subject to which

they both refer are, we suppose, well understood by the members of the profession generally.

From the Report on Medical Education which follows, we make the following extract:—

“Of the material of education it may be asserted that botany, zoology, comparative anatomy, and medical physics are not taught at all, and that pathology, histology, practical chemistry, hygiene, and medical jurisprudence, including mental alienation, are very imperfectly taught in the majority of the colleges. Ophthalmic, cutaneous, and dental medicine are so completely ignored as to leave these branches almost outside of the profession, either in the hands of pretenders or to be cultivated solely by experts.”

The Committee further remark on some branches of knowledge which are not sufficiently urged upon the attention of the pupil.

“1. Forensic Medicine is never treated of to the extent which its importance demands. In the majority of schools toxicology only is descanted on. In a few cases it is a member of the legal profession who lectures, and then it is simply legal medicine which is the subject, and the *laws of evidence* are chiefly dwelt upon. Rarely, indeed, is the important subject of insanity introduced.

“2. The science of physiology is one of so much importance that the student should thoroughly understand it; it is one of the branches of medical education which is not yet so extensively taught and illustrated as it should be. The Committee are convinced that this branch demands a chair for itself in every school, and that it cannot be taught thoroughly along with anatomy. Its connection with chemistry and pathology are so close, that, at the present day, it is more allied with these branches than with anatomy.

“3. The science of chemistry is very imperfectly handled in many of our medical schools and colleges. Some courses are given with a strong bearing towards physics, in others much time is spent unnecessarily on metals and compounds of inorganic bodies, not directly useful to the future medical man; in very few schools, indeed, does the teacher recollect that it is only medical chemistry—the *chemistry of organic metamorphoses*—which is needed to be taught. Every year chemistry forms a more necessary subject of medical knowledge; without a competent acquaintance with it, it is impossible to understand modern physiology. Practical chemistry should be taught in all our medical schools, and attendance on a three months' course should be required from candidates for the degree.

“4. The period of three months to be steadily devoted to dissection was recommended in the report of 1847, and is still required as the maximum period in some colleges, and not required at all in others. As this is manifestly too short a space of time for a student to attain even a respectable knowledge of the human frame, it is recommended that a period of six months, that is, of two trimonthly periods, to be attended during separate sessions, be recommended to the colleges.

“5. In the commercial cities the schools of medicine have become connected with hospitals, and thus conformed to recommendations of this Association made some years ago; but the practice is by no means general, and a further recommendation should be made by the Association to those medical colleges that have neglected to comply with this practical necessity.”

The report on American Necrology, by Dr. C. C. Cox, of Maryland, presents brief sketches of members of our profession who have died within the few past years.

The essay to which the prize of the Association was awarded in 1864, is by Dr. L. Elsberg, of New York, its subject is the treatment of Morbid Growths within the Larynx.

If it be really the case that intra-laryngeal growths, altering or destroying the voice of the patients in whom they occur; impeding the freedom of respiration; giving rise to cough, more or less frequent and violent; to

expectoration; to more or less dysphagia, with other suffering, and finally causing suffocation and death; if, we say, such growths are of much greater frequency than has heretofore been generally believed, and we have no reason to dispute the fact, everything which has for its object to render more clear their diagnosis, to simplify their treatment and render it efficient in their eradication, assumes a very high degree of importance.

In structure these laryngeal growths belong most frequently to what are called non-malignant tumours.

"In form they are sometimes rounded, globular, or pear-shaped, sometimes nodulated or in clusters, granular or lobulated, very frequently they are pediculated, but sometimes they are sessile and conical, or irregularly flattened, cauliflower-like, or foliated, or they may appear as circumscribed thickenings of the surface, causing abrupt elevations. Indeed, varying as they do in size from that of a pin's head to the bulk of a hazelnut, a walnut, or even larger, they assume all kinds of forms. The size of a pea is, perhaps, on the whole that most commonly observed.

"They are most frequently found attached to the vocal cords, especially just above their anterior insertion, to the ventricles, and inner surface of the epiglottis. They are met with far more frequently in the upper than in the lower cavity of the larynx, and, what is very curious, oftener on the left side than on the right. They occur more frequently in men than in women, and, though they occur at all ages, from the new-born to the aged, they have been comparatively seldom found in very old persons."

In regard to the etiology of these morbid growths, Dr. E. thinks that upon examining the report of the eleven cases embraced in his essay, there will be found much reason for agreeing with Virchow in regard to the influence of local irritation in their production.

For an account of the present and most approved surgical procedures necessary for the removal of laryngeal morbid growths we must refer our reader to the essay itself.

The prize essay for 1865 is on the Criminality and Physical Evils of Forced Abortions, by Dr. H. R. Storer, of Boston. The essay was written, and the Association has issued it in a form for general circulation. The report is a very good one, showing by incontrovertible facts and arguments that the induction of a forced abortion is, in reality, a crime against the infant, its mother, the family circle, and society; that it is attended with extreme danger, whether immediate or remote, to the mother's happiness, to her health, mental and physical, and to her life; that there is, in reality, no valid excuse for it that can be urged, save when it has been decided to be an absolute necessity by two competent medical men, in order to the preservation of the mother's life. We very much fear, however, that the style of the report is not the best adapted for a production intended mainly for the public ear; Dr. S. has occasionally forgotten that he was addressing a popular and not a medical audience.

We have thus run rapidly through the leading contents of the bulky volume of *Transactions* before us. No one can assert that in this volume of eight hundred and sixty-nine pages there is nothing interesting or valuable to be found; but we have a right to complain that such matter bears so small a proportion to that of a very opposite character—that in each succeeding annual volume there should be so much that is scarcely worthy of comment from being destitute of originality or from representing only partially or inaccurately the established doctrines of the day on the subjects treated of, and the received plans of practice recognized by modern authorities. It will scarcely be denied that papers have appeared in these *Trans-*

actions so far destitute of merit that they would scarcely command insertion in any respectable medical journal. It is high time that all papers and reports presented should not claim an insertion in the printed *Transactions* from the mere fact of their being presented. Let all papers and reports be submitted to a competent committee, and those only which are worthy of publication, either from the originality and apparent truthfulness of the views set forth in them, from their presenting a series of experiments and observations adapted to aid in the settlement of mooted questions in either of the branches of medical science, or detailing new facts and observations illustrative of the etiology, pathology, and treatment of either of the more prominent endemic diseases of the different sections of our country, or throwing light upon the origin, nature, march, mode of propagation, and the means for the prevention or arrest of the more noted of the epidemics which have formerly prevailed and are liable again to prevail in these latter days, be admitted to a place in the printed volume of *Transactions*. Until some plan of the kind is adopted, the *Transactions* published under the sanction and at the expense of the Association will, we fear, every year deteriorate in value and become less and less creditable to the learning, professional talents and practical competency of the delegates to the great "American Medical Congress," and of their entire constituency.

D. F. C.

ART. XXII.—*The Physiology of Man; designed to represent the Existing State of Physiological Science, as applied to the Functions of the Human Body.* By AUSTIN FLINT, JR., M. D., Professor of Physiology and Microscopy in the Bellevue Hospital Medical College, New York, and in the Long Island College Hospital; Fellow of the New York Academy of Medicine, Microscopist to Bellevue Hospital. Introduction; the Blood; Circulation; Respiration. 8vo. pp. 502. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1866.

DR. FLINT is already favourably known to the readers of this Journal by his contributions upon the organic nitrogenized principles, the phenomena of the capillary circulation, the action of the heart, and, more especially, by his experimental researches into the elimination of cholesterine from the blood, and its discharge from the body. The systematic treatise now before us is the first of a series of four volumes, in which he proposes to exhibit the science of human physiology in its present condition. The other three volumes are to be published annually. This method of publication, so common in Europe, and especially in France and Germany, is more advantageous, however, to the author, than to the student. By confining himself to a limited though natural division of his subject, the former is better enabled to present to the public a treatise brought up fully to the level of existing knowledge. If any considerable interval of time separate the latter from the earlier portions of his work, the former generally require greater or less revision to render them equal to the parts last published. The wants of the student are much better provided for, therefore, by placing in his hands a complete and well-digested work in which the several parts of the subject are not only treated in detail, but their relations to each other or natural dependence distinctly exhibited.

Dr. Flint's work is devoted to the consideration of pure human physiology. It embraces physiological chemistry and the anatomy of the tissues and organs of the body, only so far as necessary for the elucidation of the functions of the organism. The volume before us treats of the blood, the circulation, and respiration. One-fifth of it consists of an introduction occupied chiefly with an account of the more important proximate principles which have been isolated and studied, the general properties and relations of the different classes of these principles, and their relations to nutrition.

The author informs us, in his preface, that in treating of physiology proper, it has been his design to present what is actually known regarding the functions of the body; and in order to facilitate their study, he has generally commenced the consideration of the individual functions with a sketch of the physiological anatomy of the parts. With regard to some of the functions he advances certain views for which he claims originality, and presents, likewise, a new method for the analysis of the blood with regard to its organic constituents.

With respect to the immediate or proximate principles Dr. Flint follows, in the main, the division of Robin and Verdeil. The two great divisions which he proposes comprise, 1st. Substances which enter into the normal constitution of the organized tissues, and those constituents of the fluids which are used in nutrition. 2d. Substances which are the result of the wearing out of the tissues, and are not used in nutrition. The first of these divisions only is discussed in the present volume. The consideration of the second group is to be taken up in connection with excretion. The first group is divided, according to the classification of Robin and Verdeil into inorganic, organic non-nitrogenized, and organic nitrogenized substances. The inorganic principles are treated of briefly, but in language which recommends itself to the student on account of its great simplicity and clearness. The quantity, locality, functions, origin, and discharge of these principles, as far as known, are described with commendable precision, and in such a manner as to develop the prominent fact that in their ultimate destinations and functions they are by no means alike. While some of them, as water, basic phosphate of lime, carbonate of lime, and phosphates of magnesia, soda, and potassa, become necessary constituents of the tissues in consequence of combining molecularly with, and merging their identity into certain organic substances; others, such as the chlorides of sodium and potassium, carbonates of soda, potassa, and magnesia, bicarbonate of soda, and sulphate of soda and potassa, instead of entering into the composition of the tissues as indispensable constituents perform the accessory office in the function of nutrition of regulating by their influence in endosmosis, or otherwise, the nutritive processes.

Under the head of organic non-nitrogenized principles or hydrocarbons our author dwells more especially upon the composition, properties, origin, and functions of the animal sugars and fats, the fatty acids and soaps, the odorous principle of the blood, lactic and pneumatic acids, and pneumatized soda. In the section devoted to the consideration of the nitrogenized principles he strongly and with great propriety insists upon the important fact that these principles are the only elements in the organism endowed with life, and that all the vital phenomena which take place in the body depend primarily upon them. They are the agents especially active in the process of nutrition—a process which so eminently characterizes living bodies and serves to distinguish them from inorganic objects. As the accomplishment of this process is the great object of all the organic func-

tions, the chemico-physiological study of these principles is manifestly of extreme importance. Dr. Flint justly observes :—

“To arrive at any idea of their properties the methods of study which have been generally employed by chemists must be discarded, as by these they are reduced to inorganic elements, and treated simply as combinations of inert substances. They must be studied as nearly as possible in the condition in which they exist in the body; which is necessarily the condition in which they are capable of manifesting their characteristic vital phenomena.”

“Studied, as they generally have been, from a purely chemical point of view, they are regarded by many as solid substances in solution in the fluids, in a condition approximating to this in the semi-solids, and of course as solid in the solids, like the bones and teeth. This view is erroneous, as we shall see that some are naturally fluid, some are semi-solid, and some are solid. In this condition they have been found to consist of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, with sometimes a little sulphur and phosphorus. The colouring matters contain in addition a small proportion of iron. By ultimate analysis they have been found to be of *indefinite chemical composition*,¹ which, indeed, we would be led to expect from the state of continual change in which they exist in the body. By the method employed in arriving at their ultimate composition, even before analysis, they are completely destroyed as organic principles by desiccation, and rendered incapable of exhibiting any of their characteristic properties. The composition of their dry residue only is thus given, while in reality they all contain more or less water, which enters into their composition, and deprived of which they cannot be called organic substances. The proportion of water is to some extent variable, but confined within tolerably narrow limits.²

“The organic principles never exist alone, but always in combination with inorganic substances, which, though perhaps not absolutely necessary to the properties by which they are recognized out of the body, are essential in the performance of their vital functions in the economy. Under these circumstances the organic and inorganic principles are so closely united, that the latter may be said to acquire, by virtue of this union, vital properties. Though unaltered, the inorganic are discharged with the worn-out organic substances, and, combined with fresh organic matter, are deposited in the tissues in the process of regeneration.”

“A review of the individual properties of the organic nitrogenized principles shows great differences in their physiological, and very slight differences in their purely chemical characters. It is a fact too apparent to require argument, that their chemical history is of little importance compared to a study of their vital properties. In fact researches into their ultimate composition, with the exception that they have shown them all to contain nitrogen, are almost without value. Without exception they are all in a state of intimate molecular union with inorganic matter, and in this union inorganic compounds become endowed with life; that is, the inorganic parts of the body, as the calcareous elements of bone, taken up by the blood with the worn-out organic principles and undergoing constant waste, are capable of self-regeneration.

“*The vitality thus imparted to inorganic matters, and the fact that neither the organic nor inorganic elements are alone capable of engaging in the phenomena of life, cannot be too fully insisted upon.* Both are taken into the body as food, are digested, assimilated, and finally discharged, always in combination; the organic principles changed, and converted into excrementitious substances, and the inorganic principles unchanged.”

The first three and the thirteenth chapters of the volume under consideration are devoted to an account of the physical characters and composition of the blood, and the phenomena of coagulation and hæmatosis.

¹ Robin and Verdeil, *op. cit.*, tome iii. p. 147.

² For a further discussion of this important subject, see an article by the author in the *American Journal of the Medical Sciences*, October, 1863, “On the Organic Nitrogenized Principles of the Body, with a New Method for their Estimation in the Blood.”

The blood is the most abundant, most complex, and most highly developed or elaborated of all the fluids of the body. Its ruddy waves carry to every molecule of the tissues the material for their renewal, and the stimulus which keeps them alive and strong. Into it are constantly conveyed the essential elements of life—air, food, and water. Through the cells of the lungs the blood obtains air; through the bloodvessels and lacteals of the alimentary canal water passes, and food, in the triple form of albuminose, glucose, and oily emulsion. Air, food, and water, thus supplied to the blood, undergo a wonderful process of transformation, and are finally distributed to every part of the body. But the blood is also the grand reservoir into which are poured all the effete or worn-out matters discharged from the various tissues. Not only do the tissues find in the blood the requisite quantity of oxygen and saline matters, and the proper supply of histogenetic and calorific elements necessary to healthy nutrition, but they discharge into the blood the various products of their decomposition. In all probability this influx of effete matter into the blood occurs simultaneously with the efflux of nutritious material from the blood to the tissues. The process is probably one of endosmosis and exosmosis. This double osmotic process, in conjunction with the assimilation of nutritious materials by the tissues constitutes the great process of nutrition. In the blood, then, are constantly mingled together the materials for the renovation of the tissues, and the results of their decay—the elements of life and the products of death. In the healthy condition of the blood, the former set of these components exist in much larger quantity than the latter. In certain diseased conditions the latter accumulate with the effect of destroying the health, the comfort, and frequently the life of the individual. While the chlorides, phosphates, carbonates, and sulphates of the blood are appropriated, for the most part, under their own form, and in proportions differing in different parts of the body; and while the albuminous ingredients of the blood are also absorbed by the tissues, and at the same time transformed by catalysis into musciline, osteine, cartilageine, and other organic bases—the effete or excrementitious matters, such as carbonic acid, cholesterine, urea, creatine, creatinine, the urates of soda, potassa, and ammonia, &c., are conveyed to certain organs and by them separated from the blood, and cast out of the body. In this manner is the blood depurated or deprived of impure matters, which if allowed to accumulate beyond a certain amount would sooner or later produce a fatal result. The lungs and the skin separate carbonic acid, cholesterine escapes through the liver, and the remainder of the proximate principles above enumerated are discharged through the kidneys. The lungs, the skin, the liver, and *par excellence* the kidneys may justly be regarded, therefore, as the excretory appendages of the blood.

Furthermore, the sanguineous fluid not only ministers to these acts of nutrition and excretion, but also supplies to certain glandular organs the materials out of which are formed the various secretions, such as the tears, the perspiration, saliva, gastric juice, &c. The water, and for the most part the saline matters of these fluids, exist already in the blood; the pepsine, ptyaline, and other organic bases of these secretions are elaborated by gland-cells out of substances supplied by the circulating fluid.

The blood binds together and harmonizes all the organic functions. It is the corner-stone of organic life. The digestive and absorptive apparatuses prepare food and introduce it into the blood; the respiratory organs supply it with air and remove its carbonic acid; the circulatory apparatus

conveys it to all parts of the body; in the capillary vessels of that apparatus the functions of nutrition, secretion, and excretion take place, and in these the blood plays an important part; the secretory and excretory organs provide for the depuration of the blood—they preserve it in a pure state. Moreover, in an indirect way, the tissues in relation to the blood play a similar part, for by absorbing each their appropriate supplies, they preserve the blood from the injurious consequences of an excess of nutritious material. The blood, as the carrier of oxygen, sets in motion those changes which result in the evolution of calorific in the economy; and by means of this very same oxygen the blood influences the nervous and muscular systems.

The sanguineous fluid is hourly and momentarily impressed by the thermometric, hygrometric, barometric, and electric conditions of the atmosphere. The influence thus exerted by these climatic elements, which are, in truth, the external condition of vitality, is imparted by the blood to the tissues. Viewed in this manner the vital fluid is seen to be the great organic link connecting together external nature and the internal man. It is evident, therefore, that an intimate acquaintance with the physiology of the blood is the key to the entire series of the phenomena of life. "For the blood," as Lehmann has philosophically observed, "is the centre round which the general metamorphosis of animal matter revolves, and in which it is perfected."

Magendie, recognizing the extreme importance of an accurate knowledge of the vital fluid, devotes an entire volume of his *Phénomènes physiques de la Vie* to its experimental study; and his successor in the "College of France," the eminent Claude Bernard, has, in like manner, dwelt largely upon the same subject in his *Leçons sur les Liquides de l'Organisme*. Nearly the whole of the first volume of Milne Edwards' admirable *Leçons sur la Physiologie et l'Anatomie comparée de l'Homme et des Animaux* is occupied with an exhaustive and most instructive account of the anatomy, chemistry, and physiology of the blood. Dr. Flint, following the example of this distinguished author, also precedes his exposition of the functions with a description of the blood. This description, however, instead of being as thorough as the importance of the subject demands, is, in many respects, we regret to say, meagre and unsatisfactory. The sections relating to the physical characters of the blood, its transfusion and quantity, are exceedingly brief. The opacity, odour, temperature, and specific gravity of the blood are dispatched in a page and a half. The anatomical elements are considered at greater length, and in a more satisfactory manner.

It is well known that physiologists are divided in their opinions concerning the structure of the red corpuscles. As long ago as 1635, Bidloo, in his *Anatomia Humani Corporis*, maintained that these corpuscles were vesicular bodies. Weisse adopted this opinion a century later. Hewson, Wells, Prevost, and Dumas, and, among other more recent writers, Milne Edwards, have also advocated this doctrine. On the other hand, Blumenbach, in his *Elements of Physiology*, declared that he was able to detect in these globules nothing more than bodies of a simple, spherical appearance, and a solid, gelatinous consistence. Blainville, Donné, and Valentin coincide in this view. Dr. Dalton, in his *Treatise on Human Physiology*, also maintains that the red globules are not cells, but "consist of a mass of organized animal substance, perfectly or nearly homogeneous in appearance, and of the same colour, consistency, and composition throughout."

Dr. Flint adopts the same opinion, as will be seen from the following quotation :—

“The structure of the blood-corpuscles is very simple. They are perfectly homogeneous, presenting, in their normal condition, no nuclei or granules, and are not provided with an investing membrane. A great deal has been said by anatomists concerning this latter point, and many are of the opinion that they are cellular in their structure, being composed of a membrane, with viscid, semi-fluid contents. Without going fully into the discussion of this point, it may be stated that few have assumed actually to demonstrate this membrane; but they have, for the most part, inferred its existence from the fact of the swelling, and as they term it, bursting on the addition of water; and particularly, as it seems to me, to make the blood-corpuscles obey the theoretical laws of cell-development and nutrition laid down by Schwann. Their great elasticity, the persistence with which they preserve their bi-concave form, and their general appearance, would rather favour the idea that they are homogeneous bodies of a definite shape, than that they have a cell-wall with semi-fluid contents; especially as the existence of a membrane has been inferred rather than demonstrated.”

With regard to the development of the blood-corpuscles, Dr. Flint's views again accord with those of Dr. Dalton. He rejects the theory of the transformation of the white corpuscles or leucocytes into red globules.

“In many works on physiology and microscopic anatomy,” he writes, “we find accounts of the development of the red corpuscles from the colourless corpuscles, or leucocytes, which are supposed to become disintegrated, their particles becoming developed into red corpuscles; but there seems to be no sufficient evidence that such a process takes place. The red corpuscles appear before the leucocytes are formed;¹ and it is only the fact that the two varieties coexist in the bloodvessels which has given rise to such a theory. It is most reasonable to consider that the red corpuscles are formed by a true *genesis* in the sanguineous blastema. We can offer no satisfactory explanation of the process by which the tissues are formed from their blastema, nor can we explain the way in which the blood-corpuscles, which are true anatomical elements, take their origin. There is furthermore no sufficient evidence that any particular organ or organs have the function of producing the blood-corpuscles. Hewson supposed that they were formed in the spleen. Kölliker is of the opinion that they are destroyed in the spleen. It is regarded by some as a necessity that there should be an organ for the destruction of the corpuscles, and one for their formation. Regarding them, as we certainly must, as organized bodies which are essential anatomical elements of the blood, it is difficult to imagine what reasons, based on their function, should lead physiologists to seek so persistently after an organ for their destruction. The hypothesis that they are used in the formation of pigment seems hardly sufficient to account for this.

“In the present state of our science, the following seem to be the most rational views with regard to the development and nutrition of the blood-corpuscles:—

“1. At their first appearance in the ovum, they are formed by no special organs, for no special organs exist at that time, but appear by *genesis* in the sanguineous blastema.

“2. When fully formed, they are regularly organized anatomical elements, subject to the same laws of gradual molecular waste and repair as any of the tissues.

“3. They are generated *de novo* in the adult, when diminished in quantity by hemorrhage or otherwise, and under these circumstances they are probably formed in the liquor sanguinis by the same process by which they take their origin in the ovum.”

The chapter on the composition of the blood is chiefly interesting on account of the method proposed by our author for the quantitative analysis of the blood. Against the processes employed by Provost and Dumas,

¹ Longet, *Traité de Physiologie*, tome i. p. 715.

Andral and Gavarret, Becquerel and Rodier, and others, he urges the objection that their estimates give us only the dry residue of the organic principles; whereas to form an idea of their actual proportion, we should estimate them, if possible, with their water of composition, and united with the inorganic salts, which cannot be separated from them without incineration and consequent destruction. With this end in view, he suggests the following analytical process, as at once easy of application and sufficiently accurate in its results:—

“The blood to be analyzed is taken from the arm, and received into two carefully weighed vessels. The quantity in each vessel may be from two to four ounces. One of the specimens is immediately whipped with a small bundle of broom-corn, previously moistened and weighed, so as to collect the fibrin; and after the fibrin is completely coagulated, the whole is carefully weighed, deducting the weights of the vessel and broom-corn, which gives the weight of the specimen of the blood used. The other specimen is set aside to coagulate.

“The first specimen is used in the estimation of the fibrin and corpuscles; the second is set aside to coagulate, and is used to estimate the albumen. It is important to cover the vessel as soon as the blood is drawn, for, as has been demonstrated by Becquerel and Rodier, blood exposed to the air loses weight rapidly by evaporation.¹

“We now pass the first specimen of blood through a fine sieve to collect any fibrin that may not have become attached to the whisk, strip the fibrin from the whisk, and wash it under a stream of water. This may be done very rapidly if we cause the water to flow through a small strainer, by which it is broken up into a number of little streams, and knead the fibrin with the fingers, doing this over a sieve so as to catch any particles that may become detached. In this way it may be freed from the corpuscles in five or ten minutes. The fibrin is then freed from most of the adherent moisture by bibulous paper, and weighed as soon as possible. By the following formula we estimate the proportion per 1,000 parts of blood:—

“Weight of blood used : Weight of fibrin :: 1,000 : Fibrin per 1,000.

“The next step is to estimate the corpuscles. For this purpose a portion of the defibrinated blood, which is carefully weighed, is mixed with twice its volume of a saturated solution of sulphate of soda, and thrown upon a filter which has been carefully weighed and moistened with distilled water, and also, just before receiving the mixture of blood and sulphate of soda, with the saline solution. The fluid which passes through should be about the colour of the serum; if a few corpuscles pass at first, the liquid should be poured back until it becomes clear. The funnel is then covered, and the fluid allowed to separate, the blood-corpuscles being retained on the filter. The filter and funnel are then plunged several times into a vessel of boiling water, by which all the sulphate of soda which remains is washed out, and the corpuscles are coagulated without changing in weight. The funnel should be again covered and the water allowed to drip from the filter, after which it is weighed, deducting the weight of the moist filter previously obtained, which gives us the weight of the corpuscles. We obtain the proportion of corpuscles to 1,000 parts of blood by the following formula:—

“Defibrinated blood used : Corpuscles :: Defibrinated blood per 1,000 : Corpuscles per 1,000.

“The next step is to estimate the quantity of albumen in the serum, and thence its proportion in the blood. For this purpose we first ascertain the quantity of serum in 1,000 parts of blood, which is done by subtracting the sum of the fibrin and corpuscles per 1,000 from 1,000. Having done this, and waited ten or twelve hours for specimen No. 2 to separate completely into clot and serum, we take a small quantity of the serum, about half an ounce, weigh it carefully, and add suddenly twice its volume of absolute alcohol. The albumen

¹ See an article by the author, “On the Organic Nitrogenized Principles of the Body, with a New Method for their Estimation in the Blood,” *American Journal of the Medical Sciences*, October, 1863.

will be thrown down in a grumous mass, and the whole is thrown upon a filter, which has been previously moistened with alcohol and weighed. The funnel is immediately covered, and the fluid separates from the albumen very rapidly. We ascertain that no fluid albumen passes through the filter by testing the fluid with nitric acid. After the filter has ceased to drip, it is weighed, and the weight of the albumen ascertained by deducting the weight of the filter. The proportion of albumen to 1,000 parts of blood is obtained by the following formula:—

“Serum used : Albumen : : Serum per 1,000 : Albumen per 1,000.”

In the next chapter the phenomena, uses, and cause of coagulation are briefly discussed. The well-known observations and experiments of Richardson are judiciously commented upon and criticized. Dr. Flint is evidently disposed to adopt the general conclusion to which Richardson has arrived. He does not, however, wholly commit himself to this theory, but cautiously remarks that if we apply to the coagulation of the blood in the body, the facts which are proven with regard to external coagulation, we may conclude that “at least in the human subject and in mammals, it seems demonstrated to be due to the evolution of ammonia.” And again he says: “Ammonia, which is contained in the blood, has the property of maintaining its fluidity; but on exposure to air, or in rupture of vessels, we have an escape of ammonia, and the fibrin by its coagulation reduces the whole mass of blood to a semi-solid consistence.”

This chapter terminates with an interesting summary of the properties and functions of the blood, to which the student may refer with advantage.

The next six chapters are occupied with an account of the circulation. In the first of these are considered in some detail the movements and sounds of the heart. Dr. Flint's description of the action of the auricles and ventricles, the locomotion, twisting and hardening of the heart during the systole differs in nowise from the account of these phenomena generally given by physiologists. As to the mooted question whether the ventricles elongate or shorten during their contraction, he thus writes:—

“All who have studied the heart in action have observed changes in length, duration, contraction, and relaxation; but the contemporaries of Harvey were divided as to the periods in the heart's action which are attended with elongation and shortening. Harvey himself is not absolutely definite on this point. In one passage he says, in describing the systole, ‘that it is everywhere contracted, but especially towards the sides, so that it looks narrower, *relatively longer*, more drawn together.’¹ In his description of the case of the Viscount Montgomery, who suffered from *ectopia cordis*, he states that during the systole, the heart ‘emerged and protruded.’² Vesalius, Riolan, Fontana, and some others, contended for elongation during the systole; but Haller, Steno, Lancisi, and Bassuel contended that it shortened. The view generally entertained at the present day is that the heart becomes shorter during its systole; but there are some eminent authorities who hold an opposite opinion. Among the latter may be mentioned Drs. Pennock and Moore; who made a great number of experiments on the action of the heart in sheep and young calves. These experiments were made in Philadelphia in 1839, and it was apparently demonstrated that the heart elongated to such a marked degree, that the distance could be measured with a shoemaker's rule. In one experiment (a ewe one year old), the elongation was a quarter of an inch.³ Of all the writers of systematic works on physiology, Prof Dalton is the only one, as far as we know, who accepts this

¹ Harvey's Works, published by the Sydenham Society, p. 21.

² Ibid., p. 384.

³ Hope, “On the Heart.” American edition by Pennock, Philadelphia, 1846, p. 59.

view.¹ The experiments of this observer apparently confirm those of Drs. Pennock and Moore. Some experiments made by the author a few years ago, published in the *American Journal of the Medical Sciences*, October, 1861, had apparently the same result. There is no doubt that the point of the heart is protruded during the ventricular systole, as the experiments referred to conclusively prove; but the author was led by the perusal of recent experiments by Chauveau and Faivre, to recognize the fact that this protrusion is probably due to other causes than the elongation of the ventricles, and that *during the systole the ventricles are shortened*. The experiment cited by these eminent physiologists is very simple and conclusive. It is made by suddenly cutting the heart out of a warm-blooded animal, and watching the phenomena which accompany the few regular contractions which follow. They found that the ventricles invariably shortened during the systole. This could easily be appreciated by the eye, but more readily if the point of the organ were brought just in contact with a plane surface at right angles, when at each contraction it is unmistakably observed to recede.² This experiment we have lately repeated before the class of the Bellevue Hospital Medical College, and have satisfied ourselves of its accuracy. A large Newfoundland pup, about nine months old, was poisoned with woorara, artificial respiration was kept up, and the heart exposed. After showing the protrusion of the point and the apparent elongation while in the chest, the organ was rapidly removed, placed upon the table, and confined by two long needles passed through the base, pinning it to the wood. It contracted for one or two minutes; and at each systole, the ventricles were manifestly shortened. The point was then placed against an upright, and it receded with each systole about an eighth of an inch. This phenomenon was apparent to all present.

"In another experiment, performed a few weeks later, the heart, which had been exposed in the same way, was examined *in situ* by pinning it with two needles to a thin board passed under the organ. The presence of these needles did not seem to interfere with the heart's action, and at each ventricular systole the point evidently approached the base. To render this absolutely certain, a knife was fixed in the wood at right angles to and touching the point during the diastole, and a small silver tube was introduced through the walls into the left ventricle. At each contraction a jet of blood spirted out through the tube, and the point of the heart receded from the knife about an eighth of an inch. The animal experimented upon was a dog a little above the medium size.

"These simple experiments demonstrate that, in the dog at least, the ventricles shorten during their systole. The arrangement of the muscular fibres is too nearly identical in the heart of the warm-blooded animals to leave room for doubt that it also shortens in the human subject.

"The error which has arisen in this respect, and which obtained in our former experiments, is due to the locomotion and protrusion of the entire organ, so as to make the point strike against the chest. A little reflection indicates the mechanism of this phenomenon. During the intervals of contraction, the great vessels, particularly the aorta and pulmonary artery, which attach the base of the heart to the posterior wall of the thorax, are filled, but not distended, with

¹ Dalton, "A Treatise on Human Physiology," Philadelphia, 1864, third edition, pp. 275, 276. The heart of the eel is said by Haller to elongate during its ventricular systole, though this is denied by Fontana (*Mémoires de Haller*, Lausanne, 1760, tome iii. p. 224); but in experimenting on the organ after excision, the position in which it is held is important. If, for example, we take the heart of a turtle between the thumb and finger and hold it with the point upwards, the ventricle is so thin and flabby that it will become flattened during the intervals of contraction, and the point will be considerably elevated at each systole; but if we reverse the position and allow the point to hang down, it will be drawn up and the ventricle will shorten with the systole.

² Chauveau et Faivre, *op. cit.*, p. 14. These observers show the shortening of the heart during its systole by holding it by the great vessels with the point down. It is more free from sources of error to observe the phenomena as the heart lies on a flat surface.

blood; at each systole, however, these vessels are distended to their utmost capacity; their elastic coats permit of considerable enlargement, as can be seen in the living animal, and this enlargement, taking place in every direction, pushes the whole organ forward. We have also considerable locomotion of the heart from recoil. It is for this reason that, observing the heart *in situ*, the ventricles seem to elongate, and an instrument applied to it apparently indicates removal of the apex from the base. It is only when we examine the heart firmly fixed, or contracting after it is removed from the body, that we can appreciate the actual changes which occur in the length of the ventricles."¹

In this chapter the interesting observations of MM. Chauveau and Faivre, and those of M. Marey upon the succession of the movements of the heart are detailed, and from them deduced the general conclusion that the auricular systole is sudden, more feeble than the ventricular contraction, occupies two-tenths of a second, and is immediately followed by relaxation; that the ventricular systole is powerful, follows immediately the auricular contraction, is absolutely synchronous with the impulse of the heart, and occupies about four-tenths of a second; and that the diastole occupies four-tenths of a second. In relation to the cardiac sounds, Dr. Flint says that the first sound occupies the period of the ventricular systole, or four-tenths of the heart's action, the second sound about three-tenths, and the repose three-tenths.

Chapter V. treats of the frequency of the heart's action, the various circumstances which influence it, the cause of the rhythmical contractions of the heart, the effects of the division and galvanization of the pneumogastric nerves, and the causes which arrest the action of the heart. In this chapter Dr. Flint endeavours to show that the pneumogastric nerves perform the important function of regulating the force and frequency of the heart's pulsations.

The circulation of the blood in the arteries, capillaries, and veins is fully and ably considered in the three succeeding chapters. In this portion of the work the reader will find an account of the various instruments invented by different observers for the purpose of registering the pulse, and determining the degree of pressure and the rapidity of movement of the blood in the vessels—such as the sphygmographs of Vierordt and Marey, the hæmodynamometer of Poiseuille, the cardiometer of Magendie, the differential hæmodynamometer of Bernard, the compensating apparatus of Marey, the kymographion of Ludwig, &c. By means of an instrument devised by M. Chauveau, of the Veterinary School of Lyons, for ascertaining the rapidity of the current of blood, it has been found that in the carotid artery of the horse three currents, having different degrees of rapidity, may be distinguished:—

"1. At each ventricular systole, we have, as the average experiments of Chauveau, the blood moving in the carotids at the rate of *twenty* $\frac{1}{10}$ inches per second. After this the rapidity quickly diminishes, the needle returning quite or nearly to zero, which would indicate complete arrest.

"2. Immediately succeeding the ventricular systole, we have a second impulse given to the blood, which is synchronous with the closure of the semilunar valves, the blood moving at the rate of *eight* $\frac{1}{10}$ inches per second. This Chauveau calls the *dirotic impulse*.

¹ The observations of Fontana on the shortening of the heart are very conclusive. He constructed a little instrument consisting of two vertical rules, sliding on a horizontal bar like a shoemaker's measure, one of which was applied to the base, and the other just grazed the apex. He estimated the shortening of the heart in a lamb at about two Paris lines (*Mém. de Haller*, tome iii. p. 225).

"3. After the dirotic impulse, the rapidity of the current gradually diminishes, until, just before the systole of the heart, it becomes almost nil. The average rate after the dirotic impulse is *five $\frac{1}{6}$ inches per second*.

"These experiments give us, for the first time, correct notions of the rapidity and variations of the flow of blood in the larger vessels; and it is seen that they correspond in a remarkable degree with the experiments of Marey on the form of the pulse. Marey showed that there is a marked oscillation of the blood in the vessels, due to a reaction of their elastic walls, following the first violent distension by the heart; that at the time of closure of the semilunar valves, the arteries experience a second, or dirotic distension, much less than the first; and following this, there is a gradual decline in the distension until the minimum is reached. Chauveau shows by experiment with his instrument, that corresponding to the first dilatation of the vessels, the blood moves with immense rapidity; following this, the current suddenly becomes nearly arrested; this is followed by a second acceleration in the current, less than the first; and following this we have a gradual decline in the rapidity to the time of the next pulsation."

With regard to the capillary circulation Dr. Flint denies the existence of the "capillary force" so strongly and we may say so philosophically supported by Prof Draper, of New York, and other physiologists. He maintains that the action of the heart and the contractions and relaxations of the arterioles are sufficient to force the blood through the capillaries and to produce all the variations observed therein. He asserts very emphatically that microscopic observations and experiments on the arteries and veins, thus far, show that no other force is concerned in carrying the blood from the arteries into the venous radicles.

The last five chapters of Dr. Flint's work treat of the movements of respiration, the changes which the air and blood undergo in the lungs, and the relations of respiration to nutrition.

This brief account of its contents, together with the quotations which we have made from its pages, will suffice to convey to our readers some idea of the general character of the volume under notice. It is well and carefully written, and in language at once simple and perspicuous. Its various divisions are systematically arranged, and the facts and theories advanced are for the most part well digested. It is beautifully printed upon excellent tinted paper, and is, in all respects, a handsome and attractive book.

J. A. M.

ART. XXIII.—*A Practical Treatise on Urinary and Renal Diseases, Including Urinary Deposits; Illustrated by Numerous Cases and Engravings.* By WILLIAM ROBERTS, M. D., Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, London; Physician to the Manchester Royal Infirmary; Lecturer on Medicine in the Manchester School of Medicine. Small 8vo. pp. 523. London, 1865.

The same. 8vo. pp. 516. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea, 1866.

NEXT to the diseases affecting the lungs and heart, renal and urinary diseases exemplify most strikingly the progress made in special pathology within the memory of the older members of the medical profession. Dating from the great discoveries of Bright and the writings of Prout, our knowledge of morbid conditions seated in the kidney, together with their patho-

logical relations, and the diagnostic import of changes in the urine, has been progressively increasing through the researches of the still later anatomical and clinical observers. At the present moment, obscure as are many points connected with this branch of special pathology, and much as there is now remaining to be elucidated by further researches, the practitioner of medicine fails egregiously in doing justice to his profession and his patients if he be not cognizant of the facts already acquired, and if he neglect to interrogate the renal organs in a large proportion of the cases of disease which he is called upon to investigate. To prepare and aid the physician in discharging his duty in this respect, a treatise setting forth, concisely but comprehensively, existing knowledge and its practical applications has been, for some time, a desideratum. Dr. Roberts has undertaken to meet this want, and, after a careful examination of his treatise, we are prepared to say that, in our opinion, it is well adapted to fulfil the object for which it was designed.

The first part of the work is occupied with the physical and chemical properties of the urine in health and disease, including urinary deposits. This part embraces nearly one-third of the volume. The methods of examining the urine for known morbid changes are clearly stated, and the different varieties of renal casts, epithelium, confervoid vegetations and crystals are represented by wood-cut engravings. Under the head of urea the author has introduced the table drawn up by Professor Haughton indicating the quantity of urea excreted per day, provided the number of ounces of urine voided in the twenty-four hours and the specific gravity be ascertained. The importance of determining the amount of urea excreted, with reference to the immediate danger of uræmia, does not appear to be sufficiently appreciated by many practitioners. An examination of the urine with reference to albumen and renal casts, is often considered sufficient. But the chief source of immediate danger, in cases of disease of the kidneys, is from the effects of the accumulation of urea in the blood, and the danger from these effects is to be estimated from the deficiency of urea in the urine. Urea may not be notably deficient in the urine notwithstanding the existence of albumen in abundance and the presence of renal casts; and *per contra*, urea may be notably deficient when neither albumen nor casts exist in the urine. The quantitative analysis of the urine by either Liebig's or Davy's volumetric method is attended with sufficient difficulty to render these methods often unavailable in practice, and hence, the practitioner will find Prof. Haughton's table highly useful.

In these remarks it is assumed that urea is formed either in the tissues or the blood, and merely separated by the kidneys. Dr. Roberts, however, cites experiments made by Oppler and Zalesky as tending to show that the doctrine generally held with respect to the urea and the kidneys is incorrect, and that this excrementitious principle is a product of renal secretion. The experiments consist of tying the ureters and comparing the amount of urea in the blood after this operation with the amount in animals from whom the kidneys have been removed. Our readers will doubtless agree with us in saying that it will require numerous well-conducted and well-attested experiments to overturn the current doctrine with respect to this point. The author, moreover, affirms with respect to the mooted question as to urea being poisonous *per se* or only after conversion into the carbonate of ammonia, that recent experiments seem to have given the *coup de grâce* to both theories, and to indicate that uræmia "depends mainly and essentially on the accumulation in the blood and tissues of those primary pro-

ducts of tissue-metamorphosis (creatine, creatinine, and other extractives) which, in a later stage of histolysis, are converted into urea and uric acid."

The fallacies incident to examinations for albumen are distinctly explained in the work under review. We quote the author's mode of testing with nitric acid:—

"Nitric acid is an extremely delicate test for albumen. The best manner of applying it is to fill a test-tube to the depth of about an inch; then inclining the tube, to pour in strong nitric acid in such a manner that it may trickle down along the sides of the tube to the bottom, and pour a stratum some quarter of an inch thick below the urine. Added in this manner there is scarcely any mingling of the two fluids, and if albumen be present, three strata or layers will be obtained; one, perfectly colourless, of nitric acid at the bottom; immediately above this an opalescent zone of coagulated albumen, and on top the unaltered urine. If there be only a trace of albumen, two or three minutes elapse before the opalescent zone becomes visible. There is no method equal to this for detecting minute quantities of albumen. The reaction of the urine does not interfere with its operation. Only one caution is necessary. In concentrated urines, and especially febrile urines, the addition of the acid is apt to precipitate the amorphous urates, and thus to occasion a turbidity which might be mistaken for albumen. The two conditions, however, are easily distinguished by observing the level at which the cloudiness begins, and the direction in which it spreads. Albumen begins to coagulate immediately above the stratum of acid, and the turbidity spreads upwards; but the urates first appear at or near the surface of the urine, and the opacity spreads downwards. Heat also readily resolves the doubt; for the urates speedily disappear when the urine is warmed, but turbidity from albumen is not affected by heat."

As regards the pathological significance of albuminuria, the author points out the important distinction to be made between the permanent and temporary presence of albumen in the urine. He quotes the tables prepared by Dr. Parkes, showing, of cases of different diseases, the proportion in which temporary and permanent albuminuria were found to exist. The reader will find numerous observations relative to this point in the recent work by Abeille, of Paris, a work to which the author subsequently refers.

Part second of the volume is devoted to "Urinary Diseases, or Diseases of which the Chief Characteristic is an Alteration of the Urine." Agreeably to common usage, the author includes among these diseases diabetes mellitus, or saccharine diabetes. We are glad to see, under this head, a reference to the "milder types of diabetes." The author thus distinguishes these types: "From ordinary or classical diabetes, these milder types are distinguished by all or most of the following signs: absence of a fixed tendency to a fatal termination; absence, or only a moderate degree of thirst, voracity and emaciation; slight or temporary increase in the quantity of urine; transitory duration; amenability to treatment; slight, moderate, or intermittent glycosuria." It is highly important for the practitioner to bear in mind the occasional occurrence of a mild type of the disease in order that he may not entertain too unfavourable a prognosis in all cases in which sugar is found in the urine. It has occurred to the writer of this article to meet with a case during the past winter, in which all the symptomatic phenomena of diabetes mellitus existed for several weeks, and at length disappeared, the glycosuria included.

The author considers under distinct heads active and passive congestion of the kidneys. These conditions he treats of as separate from those embraced under the name Bright's disease. Bright's disease he considers as acute and chronic. Acute Bright's disease with this author, is, in other words, acute diffuse nephritis; it is the acute desquamative nephritis of

Johnson, the hyperæmic stage of Bright's disease according to Frerichs, the acute albuminuria of some writers, and the inflammatory dropsy of authors who wrote prior to the discovery by Bright. The distinctive features of this form of disease are sufficiently ascertained, but the pathological character and seat are not as yet settled to the satisfaction of all minds, and hence, provisionally the name acute Bright's disease should, perhaps, be retained. Under the head, chronic Bright's disease, the author embraces the several varieties of degenerative renal disease. He considers these varieties as resolvable into three types, viz., the smooth, white kidney, which is generally enlarged; the red, granular kidney, which is generally contracted, and the lardaceous or waxy kidney. He does not recognize as a distinct variety the fatty kidney, holding that "the presence of fat in the renal substance and in the epithelium of the tubes is not special to any one type of renal degeneration, but is found associated with anatomical changes of the most varied kinds, and, therefore, it has no claim to a separate consideration."

Dr. Roberts regards the different types of chronic degeneration of the kidneys as representing distinct affections, not as the successive stages of one disease. In this he is in accordance with most pathologists other than those of Germany. That his view is correct can, we believe, be logically proven; yet, it must be confessed that, clinically, it is not always easy to discriminate the affections from each other; nor is it certain how many distinct affections are embraced under the name chronic Bright's disease. We have doubts as to the propriety of eliminating the fatty kidney from the series of types. The differential phenomena pertaining to the clinical history of the different forms of chronic Bright's disease, however, have been to a certain extent ascertained. The author gives a good synopsis of the symptoms which distinguish the contracted, granular kidney, from the large white kidney; and he introduces a tabular view from Dickinson, of the relative frequency of the various secondary affections in these two types. Œdema, peritonitis, and convulsion are shown by this table to be much more frequent with the smooth kidney; whereas, heart disease, atheroma, and coma are much more frequent with the granular kidney.

Aside from the affections already named, Dr. Roberts treats, in the second part of his work, of gravel and calculus, abscess of the kidney, renal embolism, pyelitis and pyronephrosis, concretions in the kidneys, hydronephrosis, cystic degeneration, cancer, benign growths, tubercle and entozoa, the volume ending with an account of anomalies of position, form and number of the kidneys.

In concluding this notice we would again express the opinion that the author has succeeded in preparing a work which presents, comprehensively and concisely, the existing state of knowledge respecting urinary and renal diseases, regarded especially in its practical aspects; and we commend the work most cordially as admirably adapted to supply in medical literature a treatise which every intelligent physician must have felt to be needed.

A. F.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTICES.

ART. XXIV.—*Cholera, its Pathology and Treatment.*

1. *Lectures on Cholera.* By Y. A. BURRALL, M. D. 12mo. pp. 155. New York, 1866.
2. *Lectures on Cholera.* By A. CLARK, M. D., Professor of Pathology and Practical Medicine, College of Physicians and Surgeons, N. Y. From the Medical Record, 1866.
3. *A Communication from the City Physician on Asiatic Cholera. Is it a Contagious Disease?* 8vo. pp. 41. Boston, 1866.
4. *Report on Sundry Documents relating to Cholera, Transmitted by the Governor of Rhode Island to the Board of Health of the City of Providence.* By EDWIN M. SNOW, M. D., Superintendent of Health. 8vo. pp. 13. Providence, 1865.
5. *Measures proposed for the Prevention of Asiatic Cholera in the City of Providence; a Report to the Board of Aldermen.* By EDWIN M. SNOW, M. D., Superintendent of Health. 8vo. pp. 15. Providence, 1865.
6. *Tracts for the People.* By EDWIN M. SNOW, M. D., Superintendent of Health. Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4; each four pages. Providence, R. I., 1866.
7. *Notes on the Pathology and Treatment of Cholera.* By GEORGE JOHNSON, M. D., F. R. C. P., Professor of Medicine in King's College, etc. The Med. News, 1866, from British Medical Journal.
8. *Diarrhœa and Cholera; their Origin, Proximate Cause, and Cure, through the Agency of the Nervous System, by means of Ice.* By JOHN CHAPMAN, M. D., M. R. C. P., M. R. C. S. From the London Medical Times and Gazette. 12mo. pp. 57. Philadelphia, 1866.

THE appearance again of cholera as an epidemic, spreading from India to Europe, and thence to this continent, along nearly the same route and within almost the same limits pursued and occupied by it during its former visitations, has aroused the members of the medical profession everywhere to a feeling of the importance of a careful study of the vast body of facts bearing upon the nature, the causation, and mode of propagation of the disease, as well as upon the means by which its march in any particular direction may be arrested; or, at least, its introduction and spread among those communities which lie along its track may be guarded against. As a necessary consequence of this desire, evinced on every hand by physicians, to acquire, in advance of the occurrence of the cholera in their neighbourhoods, a knowledge of its etiology, pathology, and prophylaxis, and of the treatment which has been found to be the most successful in the amelioration of its more dangerous symptoms, or in their entire arrest in such as shall be so unfortunate as to become its subjects, a number of publications, of more or less pretension, have recently made their appearance. Some of these are addressed to the community at large, pointing out, in popular language, the proper sanitary measures, public, domestic, and personal, to be pursued for the purpose of removing, as far as possible, those conditions which have been found to attract, as it were, the specific poison productive of cholera, and when it is thus attracted, to favour its agency in the production and spread of the disease. Others of these publications are intended for the use of the physician alone; the major portion furnishing him with a summary of the more prominent of the facts already known in respect to the pathology and therapeutics of cholera; while a few present new views of the nature of the disease or suggest new plans for its treatment.

The titles of such of these publications as have fallen into our hands we have placed at the head of this article, proposing to give a concise sketch of the

views they set forth as to the nature of cholera, and of the means adapted to its prevention and cure.

In respect to the causation of the disease it is now, we believe, generally conceded that it is of specific origin. That locations where there is a wet soil, high atmospheric temperature, foul water, and unfavourable hygienic conditions generally, afford a favourable nidus for the generation of the cause of the disease. Such conditions are to be met with at the Delta of the Ganges, and there we find the cholera to be indigenous, the disease prevailing more or less extensively and with more or less malignancy according to the increased or diminished intensity of the local conditions enumerated. From its cradle, such as we have thus described it, the choleraic poison is liable to spread, as from a centre, in every direction; and wherever it finds a condition of things similar to those amid which it sprung into being, it exhibits its morbid influence, while this is but lightly, if at all, felt in localities marked by a drier and purer air, better water, a more copious supply of wholesome food, and where a more favourable hygienic condition of the community generally prevails. It is evident therefore, that the occurrence of cholera at any given locality will depend upon the concurrence of certain specific and local conditions, namely, a choleraic poison pervading the atmosphere, and a local condition of aerial impurity; domestic, personal, and public filth; bad water; a crowded population, and deficient or unwholesome food. Without the concurrence of the specific and local causes thus enumerated, cholera can nowhere occur or prevail to any extent.

It is an established fact that the usual course of the disease is from a centre in more or less irregular directions; at the same time, however, its course has been more strongly impressed along the chief lines of trade and intercommunication. The grand routes of travel and traffic have always been especially marked in its progress; it has followed large bodies of men in motion, and when it has passed from one continent to another, the first cases have been observed in seaport towns, from which it has spread to the interior. Cholera has frequently attached itself to bodies of troops on their march in India, and has remained with them during many days in their passage over long tracts of country, the inhabitants of which were not suffering from the epidemic. (Burrall.) Many points relating to these attacks of marching troops in India are matters of dispute, but the fact that the disease remained with such troops for many days, while it did not prevail in the country through which they passed, seems not to be gain-said; and here again, the inference is irresistible that the cause of the disease travelled with the troops, and affected different men in succession.

In what manner, it has been asked, is this portation of the choleraic poison along the chief routes of commerce and of travel effected? Are we to include cholera among the actually contagious diseases? To do so would certainly be in direct opposition to the conclusion arrived at by the great majority of those who have seen most of the disease, and have studied it in all its bearings with the greatest care—to the conclusion which is necessarily deducible from a mass of well-established facts collected from various and independent sources. While we have not, as yet, seen any evidence calculated in the slightest degree to shake our belief in the non-contagiousness of cholera, we are at the same time very fully convinced that, under certain favourable circumstances, it is capable of producing an infectious atmosphere by which the disease may be communicated to such as come within its influence. According to Dr. Mulig, as quoted by Dr. Read, of Boston, cholera does not appear to be contagious by simple contact with the sick, but is communicable only through the excretions, especially the stools of the sick; hence linen and bedding soiled by cholera patients, and rooms occupied by them, and ships on board of which cholera has prevailed may harbour the infection for a long time, and become the cause of new infections.

The opinion that cholera is propagatable through the medium of a specific poison contained in the dejections of patients labouring under the disease, is one entertained by a large number of the writers on cholera, and many very imposing facts have been adduced in support of its correctness. By a few, however, it is maintained that the recent discharges from cholera patients are not infectious, but become so only after they have undergone decomposition.

Dr. Snow, of London, believes that cholera is exclusively an affection of the alimentary canal, the successive stages of the disease, as they have been termed, being merely the results of the rapid abstraction of the aqueous portion of the blood throughout all the tissues, that the primary morbid impression upon the alimentary canal is always caused by the introduction of a specific poison, that this poison always exists in the matters thrown off from the stomach and bowels of a cholera patient, that nothing exhaled from the lungs or skin is capable of propagating the disease. The choleraic poison cannot, therefore, he infers, be carried to any great distance through the atmosphere; when dry, however, it may be attached to clothing or it may be disseminated through water, and in this manner carried long distances.

From a careful collation of the evidence which has been adduced in illustration of the origin and propagation of cholera, we consider it to be very clearly established, that persons labouring under the disease, or who have arrived direct from places at which it was prevailing at the period of their departure, and perhaps also their clothing and personal effects, bring with them an infection which, under certain conditions of atmosphere, etc., in the localities at which they land, is capable of producing the cholera; most probably by acting as a kind of ferment, by which the impure, stagnant atmosphere with which it becomes intermixed is converted into a morbid agent similar to itself. This view of the portation and propagation of disease was taught by the late Dr. David Hosack, of New York, in reference to yellow fever; it bears certainly the appearance of truth, and we know of no well-established fact by which it is conclusively overthrown.

Upon an examination of all we know positively of the conditions under which the cholera is generated, and the circumstances necessary for its spread from city to city, and from one continent to another, the leading measures demanded for the prevention of the disease at any given locality are readily understood. In general terms, we may lay them down to be, free ventilation, perfect cleanliness—public, domestic, and personal—the most scrupulous attention to the removal of all sources of foul emanations, miasmata or malaria—every cause, in short, of whatsoever nature, calculated to impair the purity of the atmosphere and thus afford conditions favourable to the germination of the choleraic poison; the thinning out of the overcrowded populations, more especially of tenement houses, and of courts, lanes, and alleys, the usual resorts of the squalid, impoverished, vicious, and intemperate portions of the populations of all large commercial and manufacturing communities; a sufficient supply of wholesome food and water; the avoidance of all extreme changes in diet and regimen; of all exertion calculated to produce over-fatigue, and of all unnecessary intercourse with malarious districts; the preservation of calmness of mind, and the casting out of all fear and despondency. In addition to the foregoing precautions, which appertain mainly to domestic and personal police, a very necessary precaution to prevent the introduction of cholera into a community, is the establishment of a well-regulated quarantine in respect to persons and their effects coming from an infected port or place. Into the details of such a quarantine, and the proper disposal of the sick and of the apparently well, arriving direct from ports and places where cholera prevailed when they left, we cannot enter. It is, nevertheless, a subject of very great importance, in respect to which serious mistakes are very liable to be made.

There is no general agreement as to the immediate cause of the morbid phenomena pathognomonic of cholera. The theory which is at present exciting the most attention is that of Dr. George Johnson, of London. He presumes that cholera results from the introduction of a specific poison into the body either through the lungs or the digestive canal. The most constant and characteristic effect of this poison is to excite a copious secretion from the mucous membrane of the stomach and bowels. This secretion is tinged with bile *before* collapse comes on, and also after the collapse has passed off; but during the stage of collapse it has the characteristic *rice-water* appearance, the presence of bile being detected only by chemical tests. The vomiting and purging constitute the means by which the morbid secretions are eliminated from the alimentary canal.

"The symptoms of choleraic collapse are so well known," says Dr. J., "as to need no minute description. The most important and characteristic are the following: Coldness and blueness of the skin, great diminution of the volume and force of the pulse; shrinking of the features, with a corpse-like sinking of the eyeballs; more or less hurry and difficulty of breathing, with a short, dry cough; a peculiar feebleness of voice; coldness of the tongue and breath; a sensation of burning heat in the epigastric region; great thirst; more or less complete suppression of bile and urine; vomiting of a rice-water fluid; torpor and drowsiness in a variable degree, but without delirium; and, lastly, cramps in the muscles. Most of these symptoms are present in every case of collapse; some, however, may be absent."

The pathological explanation of this remarkable train of symptoms Dr. J. refers to a more or less complete impediment, existing during the stage of collapse, to the passage of blood through the lungs from the right to the left side of the heart.

The true explanation of this arrest of blood in the lungs, Dr. J. believes to be a spasmodic contraction of the muscular walls of the minute pulmonary arteries, caused by the irritation exercised upon them by the poisoned blood; the effect of which is to diminish, and in fatal cases entirely to arrest, the flow of blood through the lungs.

We must refer to the "Notes" of Dr. J. on "the Pathology and Treatment of Cholera," for the facts and arguments adduced by him in proof of the correctness of his views. Plausible as these may at first sight appear, still, upon a more close examination, we can scarcely believe that they will be found consistent in all their parts, or to present a satisfactory explanation of the leading phenomena of cholera, or to serve as a safe basis for its rational and successful treatment.

If the phenomena which may be considered as essential to cholera, from the fact of their invariable presence in every case of the disease, be carefully examined; if these phenomena also be compared with the only lesions invariably met with in the bodies of those who have died of cholera during the stage of collapse, it must be very evident that the strongest impression of the choleraic poison is made upon the gastro-intestinal mucous membrane, giving rise to a profuse secretion of a serous, rice-water fluid. By this secretion the blood throughout the system is completely drained of its serum, and of the saline matters which it holds in solution, and which are so essential in order to sustain the blood in that condition which is essential to the regular and uninterrupted performance of all its functions.

The exaggerated secretion of the intestinal follicles must have been necessarily preceded by an active afflux towards them, and it must also be necessarily accompanied by that state of turgescence of the secretory organs which is attendant upon all augmented secretions.

"This fluxion towards the follicles of the digestive tube, among the earliest effects of the cause, whatever it may be, which is productive of cholera, is manifestly the result of the well-known law, *ubi irritatio, ibi fluxus*. Starting from the orgasm of the follicles thus alluded to, we have little difficulty in showing how the phenomena of cholera follow as natural results.

"The follicles gradually increase in size under the influence of this active fluxion to them, their secretions are augmented, and thus is produced the serous diarrhoea which constitutes the initiatory stage of cholera. As soon as the secretion is increased throughout the whole digestive tube, to a sufficient extent to quickly abstract from the blood a large portion of its elements, the choleraic symptoms appear. Previously to this, the loss which the blood suffers is slight, the circulation repairs it continually—it is insufficient to alter the blood rapidly, so as to be immediately irreparable. Thus, the intensity of the general symptoms is, *cæteris paribus*, in proportion to the suddenness of the serous secretions. A person in whom these secretions occur slowly will suffer less at the end of three or four days, notwithstanding he may have lost a large quantity of serum, than another would at the termination of an hour in whom the deperdition takes place suddenly, even though he has lost less serum. For the same reason the disease becomes very speedily fatal in those who have scarcely any discharge

by vomiting or stool, but whose alimentary canal becomes suddenly filled by the product of the secretion, and this especially in those whose vital powers are enfeebled by previous disease, irregular habits, etc.

"Debility, coldness of the extremities, feebleness of the pulse, oppressed respiration, and syncope are the immediate results of all sudden losses of blood; it is quite intelligible then how they occur in a disease where the blood is suddenly deprived of some of its most important elements; the same symptoms likewise occur in excessive serous diarrhœas, and in ordinary cholera.

"The blood deprived of its serum by the profuse secretion into the bowels, becomes thickened, and in proportion as it is rendered thick and viscid, and the propulsive power of the heart is enfeebled by the same excessive secretion will the circulation be diminished. The diminution of the circulation through the lungs causes derangement of respiration—the blood being deprived of its saline matters by the secretion in the bowels, the oxygen of the air inspired cannot effect in it those changes which it ordinarily produces during its passage through the lungs. The proper changes of the blood in the lungs being thus imperfectly effected, and ultimately entirely suspended, the portion which reaches the left side of the heart is similar to that sent to the lungs from the right side of the heart. The suspension of the general circulation and the dark colour of the blood produces a blue or bronzed hue of those parts in which the thinness of the skin permits the colour of the blood to be partially seen, like what occurs in asphyxia. The circulation being suspended animal heat can no longer be generated, and hence the body becomes cold. The lessening of the mass of fluids by the choleraic evacuation causes the shrivelling of the fingers and toes, as is observed also in some cases of profuse hemorrhage. Thus are the phenomena of collapse produced.

"In some cases the profuse secretions from the bowels are arrested or diminished, either spontaneously or from the effects of remedies. So long as the profuse secretions continue it is impossible for the absorbents to repair the loss which the blood has sustained—these evacuations being arrested, the blood is then thinned by the water taken up by the absorbents, and becomes again fitted for circulation through the vessels—and the addition of saline matters derived from the same source restores to it its capacity to undergo the proper vital alterations in the lungs. Reaction is now effected, the immediate result of which is to repair the disorder occasioned by the intestinal secretion. The excessive secretory action of the gastro-intestinal mucous membrane ceasing, the other secretions, as those of urine, of bile, etc., which were suspended during the period of collapse, are re-established. The difficulty to the establishment of reaction is proportioned to the alteration which the blood has undergone, and the morbid conditions which follow reaction result, in great measure at least, from this change in the blood. The brain here suffers more than any of the other organs, except the digestive, because of the peculiarity of the intercranial venous circulation, which by rendering the progression of the blood slower and more difficult than elsewhere leads easily to congestion. This congestion persists, notwithstanding the reaction, because the viscid and semi-coagulated blood of the sinus presents an obstacle to the re-establishment of the cerebral circulation. In the reaction congestion is reproduced, probably because while there is an augmentation of activity in the arterial impulsion in the brain, the circulation through the sinuses is still retarded."

In the outline we have thus presented of the causation of the pathognomonic phenomena of cholera we have largely borrowed, in the main textually, from a paper "On the Pathology of Cholera," read before the Philadelphia Medical Society, by the editor of this Journal, and published in the *Cholera Gazette* of November 21, 1832. To that paper we refer for a more detailed exposition of the pathological views we have sketched; views which will be found, it is believed, when compared with the facts and arguments adduced in their support in the paper from which we quote, and with the observations accumulated since its publication, to furnish a more consistent and accurate explanation of the pathology of cholera than any of the others which have been advanced.

We shall not enter into a consideration of the various plans of treatment which have been proposed for the cure of cholera. The very fact of their mul-

tiplicity and their conflicting character, is, of itself, *prima facie* evidence that no one of them has been found particularly successful. In the beginning of an epidemic of cholera, especially when the disease occurs amid a crowded and squalid population, in unhealthy localities, the disease will be found to terminate fatally in the great majority of cases. The cholera, under such circumstances, runs so rapid a course that the physician has no opportunity to benefit his patient by removing him to a more healthy locality, or to arrest his disease by appropriate remedies. A rule of universal application in cases of cholera, is that the earlier the treatment is commenced the more certain will it be in the arrest of the disease. During the stage of serous diarrhœa, with which the attack of cholera in almost every case commences, a very simple treatment will generally suffice, provided the sanitary condition of the patient be, at the same time, properly cared for, to prevent the onset of the more serious symptoms by which the stage of collapse is ushered in.

In the early stage of cholera, we have not unfrequently found venesection, cautiously practised, to be followed by a prompt amelioration of all the more urgent symptoms; in other cases, cups to the abdomen, either scarified or dry, were found equally beneficial. Pediluvia, followed by frictions to the extremities, will often be found useful. In cases where a slight serous diarrhœa is the only symptom present, castor oil, combined with a proper dose of laudanum, we have known very promptly to arrest the disease. When the diarrhœa still persists, a combination of blue mass and opium or morphia, has seldom failed to stop the diarrhœa, and, at the end of a few hours, to bring away dark consistent discharges from the bowels, followed by a complete and permanent cessation of all uneasy sensations. Attention to diet and clothing, and absolute rest, are all important. The patient, so long as the diarrhœa persists, should be confined to gum-water or rice-water, taken cold, and in small quantities at a time; for a few days after the diarrhœa has ceased, the diet should consist of well-boiled oatmeal gruel, thickened milk, crackers boiled in milk, beef-tea, essence of beef and the like. The limbs of the patient should be well rubbed with a liniment composed of two parts olive oil and four of pure aqua ammonia; these frictions have appeared to us to do good, not simply as a rubefacient, but by diminishing the exhausting perspiration with which the skin, in many cases, is liable to be constantly bathed. After the frictions, sinapisms should be applied to the ankles, thighs, wrists, arms, and epigastrium. The patient should be allowed ice-water in small quantities at a time, or, what is still better, a teaspoonful of powdered ice every ten or fifteen minutes. If the stomach of the patient will retain it, a pill composed of from one quarter to a grain of opium, and from one to two grains of blue mass, should be given every three or four hours. Under this treatment, we have found the vomiting and purging to cease, the spasms to diminish and then finally to cease, the respiration to become fuller and more regular, and the pulse stronger and more developed. After some hours, full consistent stools of a very dark colour and highly offensive, take place, followed soon by natural stools and a state of complete convalescence. Stimulants in this stage of the disease we have found invariably to do harm. The use of the warm bath was never, in our hands, productive of any good effect. Choleraic patients we have always found intolerant of heat. Occasionally, at this stage of the disease, there will be observed a marked tendency to congestion of the brain, especially in drunkards. In such case, cups to the head we have found decidedly beneficial.

When the stage of collapse has become fully established, treatment of any kind will be found of little avail. In a few cases, however, frictions to the surface with the liniment of olive oil and ammonia, stupes of spirits of turpentine to the epigastrium, sinapisms to the extremities, dry heat to the feet, and powdered ice internally, will be found to favour reaction even under the most unpromising circumstances.

In the stage of incipient collapse opiates, and every form of stimulant given internally, we have found to be productive of injury.

Of the remedial value of the treatment proposed by Dr. Chapman, of London, the application, namely, of bags of a certain form and size along the spine, we know nothing either from our own experience or that of our medical

friends. We consider the pathological views upon which the plan of treatment proposed by Dr. C. is based to be untenable, namely, that cholera is produced by a universal spastic contraction of the arteries consequent upon hyperæmia of the spinal and sympathetic centres, still we are not so sure but that the local treatment instituted by Dr. C. may, in many cases, prove beneficial. We have seen, on more than one occasion, at the very commencement of the stage of collapse, speedy and permanent reaction brought about by rubbing the surface of the patient with ice.

D. F. C.

ART. XXV.—*Reports on the Extent and Nature of the Materials available for the preparation of a Medical and Surgical History of the Rebellion.* Circular No. 6. War Department, Surgeon General's Office, Washington, November 1, 1865. 4to. pp. 166. Printed for the Surgeon General's Office, by J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia, 1865.

THIS circular contains two reports; the surgical comes from Dr. George A. Otis, the present curator of the Army Medical Museum, in charge of the Division of Surgical Records, Surgeon General's Office; the medical from Dr. J. J. Woodward, in charge of the Record and Pension Division, and of the Medical Section, Army Medical Museum. It has been published by the present Surgeon-General for the information of the medical officers of the army.

Of the nature, extent, and value of the surgical data Dr. Otis says:—

"The materials in the office relating to the surgery of the late war consist of the reports of the medical officers engaged in it, and of illustrations of these reports in the shape of pathological specimens, drawings, and models. The documentary data are of three kinds: first, the numerical returns, in which the number alone of the different forms of wounds, accidents, injuries, and surgical diseases is given; secondly, what may be called the nominal returns, in which are furnished the name and military description of each patient, and the particulars of the case, with more or less of detail; and thirdly, the miscellaneous reports. To the first class belong the 'classified returns of wounds and injuries' which every medical officer has been required to furnish immediately after every engagement, the 'tabular statement of gunshot wounds,' and the portion of the 'monthly report of sick and wounded' referring to surgical diseases and accidents. The second class comprises the 'quarterly reports of wounded' and the 'quarterly reports of surgical operations' required of all general and post hospitals, the quarterly 'sanitary reports' of regimental surgeons, the 'nominal lists of wounded' forwarded by medical directors after every general engagement, and extracts from 'case books.' In the third class are included the reports of medical directors of armies in regard to the operations of the Medical Department, and the succour given to the wounded; reports and dissertations on new methods and modes of treatment, and modifications of surgical apparatus and appliances; pathological researches on morbid processes pertaining to surgery, as hospital gangrene, osteo-myelitis, pyæmia, and the like; plans for ambulance organization, and the transportation of the wounded by land and water.

"The extent of these materials is simply enormous. The returns are of as huge proportions as the armies that have been engaged in active operations for the last four years. The great body of the medical officers have made the reports required of them with commendable diligence and promptitude, and their zeal is the more deserving of praise when the engrossing nature of their field duties is considered. The result has been the accumulation of a mass of facts and observations in military surgery of unprecedented magnitude."

It will be possible, it is estimated by Dr. Otis, by judicious condensation, to include in two large quarto volumes this immense mass of material. In one will be given the statistics of the graver injuries, in the other those of the less serious injuries, with an historical summary, and a discussion of the lessons derived from the records of the war.

Of the nature and extent of the data bearing on the health of the army during the war, Dr. Woodward says:—

"The matter collected is partly statistical, partly pathological. The first category embraces the medical statistics of the several armies and general hospitals. The second consists of a number of memoirs and reports by medical officers on the causes, symptoms, and treatment of the more important camp diseases, of numerous histories of cases and autopsies, of the fine series of medical and microscopical specimens in the Army Medical Museum, and of the results of the pathological studies conducted under my direction on the basis of these collections. In addition, there are a large number of descriptions and plans of general hospitals, of reports on hospital organization, and some other miscellaneous matters.

"The object kept steadily in view has been to collect all the information possible with regard to the sickness and mortality of the army during the war, and especially whatever related to the nature and causes of those affections which were the chief occasion of death and disability."

The material in the hands of Dr. Woodward he hopes to be able to digest in three quarto volumes.

It would be impossible for us to express the great gratification we have experienced in the examination of these Reports, about which we hope to say more on another occasion.

W. F. A.

ART. XXVI.—*Reports of American Hospitals for the Insane:—*

1. *Of the Frankford Asylum, for the fiscal year 1865-66.*
2. *Of the Northern Ohio Asylum, for the fiscal year 1864-65.*
3. *Of the Bloomingdale Asylum, for the year 1865.*
4. *Of the Eastern Asylum of Kentucky, for the fiscal year 1864-65.*
5. *Of the Western Asylum of Virginia, for the fiscal years 1863-64 and 1864-65.*
6. *Of the Wisconsin Hospital, for the fiscal year 1864-65.*
7. *Of the McLean Asylum, for the year 1865.*
8. *Of the Tennessee Hospital, for 10½ months, 1865-66.*
9. *Of the Western Asylum of Kentucky, for the fiscal year 1864-65.*
10. *Of the King's County, N. Y., Asylum, for the fiscal year 1864-65.*

1. In the report of the *Frankford Asylum*, for the official year ending with the close of February, 1866, Dr. Worthington says: "During the summer and fall months there was an unusual prevalence of intermittent and remittent fevers, and dysentery, in all the surrounding country, yet our patients were entirely exempt from any of these forms of disease."

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients in hospital March 1, 1865			66
Admitted in course of the year			20
Whole number			86
Discharged, including deaths			26
Remaining Feb. 28, 1866	26	34	60
Of the discharged there were cured	5	10	15
Died			5

Died of pulmonary consumption, 1; spinal congestion, 1; diarrhœa, 2; acute cerebral congestion, 1.

As the proper method of treating the so-called incurable insane is a subject upon which there is a diversity of opinion, and as those opinions have been recently, to a considerable extent, called out, the following extract is particularly opportune:—

"Nearly all chronic cases are susceptible of improvement by hospital treatment, and many patients of long standing, who have never had the advantages of suitable treatment, if placed in hospitals might be restored, who would other-

wise continue insane for the remainder of their lives. One patient was discharged restored, during the past year, who had been for more than ten years insane, nine of which had been passed in the asylum in a state of most distressing hypochondriacal insanity. Another, who has been nearly five years insane, has so far improved during the past year as to encourage a strong hope of her recovery.

* * * "The common idea that the incurable insane require a lower standard of medical and personal care and attention than the curable, is founded on an entire misconception of their actual wants; and the consequent belief that has been entertained by some that this class might be properly cared for in separate institutions at a cheaper rate than in hospitals for the curable, is also erroneous, and calculated to lead to serious errors in the management of the insane. Many of the feeble and helpless, of the aged and infirm, among the incurables, require fully as much personal attention as an equal number of recent and excited cases; and all the provisions made in hospitals for the maintenance of the health of their inmates are equally important to the chronic and incurable as to the curable insane. In one point of view, indeed, they are vastly more so, because by their continuous residence in such institutions, they must suffer much more for the want of such provision than the curable, who remain comparatively a much shorter time within their walls."

2. On the 1st of November, 1864, Dr. Wythes succeeded Dr. Kendrick as superintendent of the *Northern Ohio Lunatic Asylum*, and remained in office nine months, when he resigned, because his "eligibility" was disputed. His successor, Dr. Byron Stanton, was installed on the 1st of August, three months before the date of this report.

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients in hospital October 31, 1864	61	73	134
Admitted in course of the fiscal year	52	54	106
Whole number	113	127	240
Discharged, including deaths	43	59	102
Remaining Oct. 31, 1865	70	68	138
Of the discharged there were cured	23	33	56
Died	8	5	13

"We have had," says Dr. Stanton, "an unusually sickly season. Since about the 1st of July malarial diseases have been very prevalent, in many cases assuming the form of typhoid, or, more properly, typho-malarial fever. Sanitary measures were at once instituted, but the sickness did not abate until the approach of autumnal frosts.

"The sickness was not confined to the patients, but spread through the house, but few of the employees escaping without an attack of greater or less severity."

The number of deaths from this fever is not mentioned.

3. Dr. Brown, of the *Bloomington Asylum for the Insane*, reports the following statistics for the year 1865:—

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients at the beginning of the year	80	91	171
Admitted in course of the year	68	84	152
Whole number	148	175	323
Discharged, including deaths	69	83	152
Remaining at the end of the year	79	92	171
Of the discharged there were cured	27	39	66
Died	16	12	28

"The deaths were attributable to apoplexy or its consequences in eight cases; to general paralysis of the insane in five cases; to pulmonary consumption in six; to maniacal exhaustion in four; to dysentery in three, and to inflammation of the lungs, and disease of the kidneys, in one case each."

It will be remembered that the female department of this hospital was enlarged a few years ago, while the department for males remains as formerly. Hence

the accommodations for men are inadequate to the demands, and the question of making an addition has arisen. Dr. Brown suggests the erection of another establishment for men, and the retention of the present establishment for women alone.

But the encroachment of streets and the increasing annoyances from trespassers upon the grounds, as the city extends and the population increases, are prophetic reminders of the troubles of the future, and start the further question of an abandonment of this site, and a removal of the hospital farther into the country.

4. In the report of the *Eastern Lunatic Asylum* of Kentucky for the official year, ending Sept. 30, 1865, it is said that "the buildings are full to overflowing with patients, and quite a large number of applicants are being rejected for want of room." The board of managers recommend the erection of additional buildings.

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients at the beginning of the year	141	100	241
Admitted in course of the year	32	27	59
Whole number	173	127	300
Discharged, including deaths	21	24	45
Remaining at the end of the year	152	103	255
Of the discharged there were cured	12	14	26
Died	5	9	14

Deaths from variola, 6; phthisis pulmonalis, 5; epilepsy, 2; exhaustion, 1.

In mentioning the deaths from smallpox Dr. Chipley says: "I have not been able to ascertain how this terrible malady was introduced into the house. The first person attacked was a female, who had no possible opportunity for communicating with the outer world; she was never in the halls, except in passing to and from the day-rooms, had no communication with visitors who were passing through the building, and she could not, therefore, have received the contagion from them. When the character of the disease was recognized, our only resource for isolation was an effort to confine the malady to a single ward. When cases occurred elsewhere, among the females, they were removed into the ward where the malady first appeared. We had no detached building which could be converted into a pest-house, and none could be procured in the neighbourhood. In spite of this very partial isolation, and repeated vaccination, cases began to multiply to an alarming extent. Under these circumstances, it was deemed proper to procure lumber and erect temporary hospitals on the asylum grounds. Soon after one of these buildings was prepared for the reception of patients the disease disappeared."

A very large part of this interesting report is devoted to a discussion of the general subject of making provision for the suitable care and treatment of the insane. Subsidiary to this, there is an investigation of the question of the increase of mental disorders, in which the conclusion is reached that "insanity is a growing evil in every part of our country. Society is daily becoming more artificial, and new wants more imperative. Men's aspirations are assuming a more impracticable character, and sad disappointments are, consequently, more frequent and damaging. Thousands who were formerly happy and contented in their humble avocations have been seduced, by the spirit of the times, into mighty struggles for the attainment of position supposed to be conferred by wealth alone. Too many are wrecked, and come to spend the remnant of life in our wards."

Dr. Chipley estimates the number of insane persons in Kentucky at 1100; according to the national census of 1860 it was 623.

The plan of treating chronic and apparently incurable cases in county poor-houses; that of colonization, as pursued at Gheel; the modification of the latter, as proposed by Dr. Hills and some other Americans, in which incurables are to be collected in a specially constructed village upon one common farm, are severally passed in review, and severally condemned; and the author arrives at

the conclusion that the true system of treatment is that of the modern hospital, at which both curables and incurables partake of common benefits.

We have not room even for an adequate synopsis of this elaborate exposition of the merits of the disputed question, and must content ourselves with a reference to the report itself.

5. The following numerical record is extracted from the report of the *Western Lunatic Asylum* of Virginia, for the two official years terminating with the close of September, 1865:—

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients in hospital Sept. 30, 1863 . . .	195	136	331
Admitted in the course of two years . . .	56	37	93
Whole number	251	173	424
Discharged, including deaths	74	43	117
Remaining Sept. 30, 1865	177	130	307
Of the discharged there were cured . . .			14
Died			66

Deaths from marasmus, 38; pulmonary consumption, 4; "pulmonary disease." 1; pulmonary abscess, 1; diarrhœa, 3; chronic diarrhœa, 2; dysentery, 2; chronic dysentery, 1; cholera morbus, 1; congestion of the lungs, 1; hydrothorax, 1; disease of the heart, 2; cerebral disease, 3; dyspepsia, 1; epilepsy, 1; exhaustion, 2; cancer, 1; and intussusception, 1.

In allusion to the fact that, during the larger part of the time embraced by the report, the hospital was subjected to the privations of a period of civil warfare, Dr. Stribling says: "Groceries and other supplies usually deemed *essentials* in the domestic economy, assumed the place of luxuries, and these latter utterly disappeared. Thanks, however, to a kind Providence, the efforts of those upon whom devolved the labour of procuring supplies, were so far blessed that we do not believe that a single member of our extensive household suffered at any time with hunger or cold. It was most gratifying also to witness with what cheerfulness all (with but few exceptions) submitted to the necessities of their position.

"The nature and purposes of the institution seemed, throughout the protracted strife, to be recognized and appreciated by the contending hosts. The grounds and inclosures were, for the most part, unmolested, the buildings carefully guarded, and the privacy of occupants thoroughly protected. We regret exceedingly having to record the following exception."

An account is then given of an attack, on the 4th of March, 1865, by a detachment of Sheridan's troops, upon the storehouses of the hospital, and the "bearing off and destroying" of a large quantity of flour, bacon, and other supplies.

6. In the report of the *Wisconsin State Hospital for the Insane*, for the fiscal year closing with the 30th of September, 1865, Dr. Van Norstrand, says: "Our wards have been crowded to their utmost capacity during the past year, containing thirty more patients than should occupy them." He consequently urges an enlargement of the building. But the proposition has been made to convert this establishment, without enlargement, into an asylum for incurables and erect another, in some other part of the State, for curables—a proposition which the doctor strenuously opposes.

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients in hospital, Sept. 30th, 1864 . . .	79	91	170
Admitted in course of the year	44	43	87
Whole number	123	134	257
Discharged, including deaths	34	46	80
Remaining, Sept. 30th, 1865	89	88	177
Of the discharged, there were cured . . .			33
Died			13

Died with phthisis, 3; exhaustion from chronic mania, 3; exhaustion from acute mania, 2; chlorosis, general paralysis, valvular disease of the heart, suicide, and "wilful self-violence," 1 each.

"The physical health of the household has been excellent during the past year, none having suffered from any epidemic or endemic disease, except during the last ten days we had eleven cases of acute miasmatic dysentery."

7. The numerical history of the results of treatment at the *McLean Asylum*, in the course of the year 1865, is as follows:—

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients in hospital, July 1st	90	105	195
Admitted in course of the year	42	40	82
Whole number	132	145	277
Discharged, including deaths	39	46	85
Remaining, Dec. 31	93	99	192
Of those discharged, there were cured	15	23	38
Died	11	6	17

"Fifteen of the seventeen deaths were from chronic insanity of many years' duration, and the remaining two from the exhaustion of acute mania."

In May, 1865, the new building for the most excited men, similar to the one erected a few years ago for women, was completed.

"I do not attach too much importance to these structures," says Dr. Tyler, "in saying that they have proved that very much more can yet be accomplished for the good of the insane, by mere architectural arrangements, than has yet been attained."

These buildings were very expensive, but of their pre-eminent adaptation to the object in view there can be no doubt. It is safe to assert that they have not their equals, elsewhere.

The following extract from this report is applicable throughout an extensive geographical latitude.

"With the opportunities of observation which my position gives me, I shall scarcely be faithful to duty without briefly referring to one 'error of the times,' which is shortening many a life, and bringing many to our hospitals in a state of incurable brain disease. I refer to the intense and unceasing activity displayed chiefly in business, but extending to almost every other pursuit. Every hour of every day is given up to an unflinching and persistent devotion to whatever interests the individual. Nights and Sundays can scarcely be spared from labour, and are compressed into such small periods as shall just suffice to appease a weary frame and a very moderate conscience. No time is taken for recreation, and little for meals, and that little in a very irregular way. Every moment not spent in the keen drive of business is looked upon as lost. Every nerve is strained to accomplish just as much as is possible to unremitting exertion. Everything is done rapidly, or, in the language of the day, 'with a rush.'

"Every man has a given amount of vital force to live with and work with. His capacity for any kind of labour, whatever it may be and however it may compare with that of another, has its limit. It never can be overdrawn upon without serious damage. So much of this force as he wastes, or so much as he turns in any one direction, so much less has he for any other. If he overworks his brain his body will suffer. If he overworks his body his brain will suffer.

* * * * *

"During the last eighteen months I have seen many persons who have devoted themselves incessantly to their business, as before described, and have been sensible of a growing sense of exhaustion and inability, but have been unwilling to intermit their pursuits until some proposed object had been gained. Before which, however, the long-continued strain has proved too great, and paralysis or softening of the brain, or some incurable malady, has ended both the work and the desire to engage in it. I have also seen a large number of persons who have been sensible of the same feelings of fatigue, of a growing irritability of temper, a loss of appetite, indigestion, inability to sleep comfortably during even the short time they could spare for the purpose, of some pain in the head, and who at length have become alarmed by a slight confusion of thought, an inability to cast their accounts correctly, a great sense of weariness and a feeling of incompetency to undertake what they had all along been

earnestly engaged in, and with all this, some depression of spirits. Such persons may recover by immediate rest and careful medical treatment, but never to be again the vigorous workers they have seemed. Their danger is indeed imminent, for a single step more may place them beyond a possibility of recovery."

8. The report now before us from the *Tennessee Hospital for the Insane*, embraces the period from the 1st of April, 1865, to the 15th of February, 1866.

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients in hospital at the beginning of the period	94	76	170
Admitted in the course of 10½ months	53	21	74
Whole number	147	97	244
Discharged, including deaths			52
Remaining, Feb. 15th, 1866			192
Of the discharged there were cured			25
Died			12

Deaths from maniacal exhaustion, 2; paralysis, 2; epilepsy, 1; catalepsy, 1; apoplexy, 1; phthisis pulmonalis, 1; tabes mesenterica, 1; variola, 2; varioloid, 1.

"In December, 1865," says Dr. Jones, "smallpox, which had become epidemic in the city (Nashville) and vicinity, reached the wards of the hospital, and within three weeks was developed in four separate departments within, and one without.

"We first attempted to restrain the disease by placing those infected in the fourth story; but soon the number had so increased that we removed them, and subsequently others, to a commodious farm-house. We have had twelve cases, varying in type from the most malignant variola to the mildest varioloid. There have been three deaths.

"It is worthy of remark that every case developed here succeeded well-marked vaccination, and several occurred where recent vaccination was in full state of maturation.

"We endeavoured to arrest the pestilential visitor—and probably succeeded—by a flank movement; that is, by such repeated vaccinations as we believed would exhaust the susceptibility of every one in any wise connected with the institution.

"As no new case has occurred for more than a month, we are hopeful that we shall have no more of it."

It is evident, from this report, that the hospital is in progress of recovery from the dilapidation and the devastation of the recent period of warfare.

9. By the report of the *Western Lunatic Asylum* of Kentucky, for the official year ending with the 30th of November, 1865, it appears that considerable progress had been made, in the course of that year, toward the completion of the new building. At the date of the report it was "nearly complete, in all its parts, up to the point where the west wing begins."

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients at the beginning of the year	66	57	123
Admitted in course of the year	26	33	59
Whole number	92	90	182
Discharged, including deaths	18	21	39
Remaining at the end of the year	74	69	143
Of the discharged, there were cured	7	11	18
Died	9	10	19

The number of deaths is unusually large. "This increased mortality," remarks Dr. Rodman, "has had its origin in two causes—the character of cases admitted, and an endemic of typhoid fever by which most of the deaths were caused; perhaps epidemic would be the more proper expression in reference to the fever by which our inmates have suffered, as it has prevailed with unusual violence throughout this and some of the neighbouring counties. Diarrhœa and dysen-

tery, with their train of evil consequences, have also been prevalent during the spring and summer months."

In regard to the psychopathic effects of the recent civil strife, he says:—

"From all that I gather, there is as yet no appreciable increase of insanity since the close of the war; indeed, applications for admission into this hospital have been less frequent than for the corresponding period of last year. It may be said, and said with truth, that although the war is ended, there are still so many exciting subjects—so much to keep alive that condition of irritation, and to sustain that 'erethism' which we all know has obtained to greater or less extent among all classes of people, that that stage of depression which is the consequence of all continued high excitement has not arrived, and resulting insanity not yet become apparent; though if the war is likely to result as predicted, has not time enough already elapsed since its close to verify the opinions expressed—to some extent at least?"

10. In the report of the *King's County (N. Y.) Lunatic Asylum*, for the year ending July 31, 1865, it is said that "fifty-four more patients have been admitted than during any previous year of its history. This excess over the usual rates of admission is mainly traceable to causes and influences connected, directly or indirectly, with the war. Among the latter is the breaking up of families, by reason of the loss of life or health of their main support, which has caused the sending to this Asylum of many idiots, imbeciles, and children affected with epilepsy or convulsions, who have hitherto been cared for at home."

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients in hospital, July 31, 1864	168	246	414
Admitted in course of the year	141	122	263
Whole number	309	368	677
Discharged, including deaths	123	122	245
Remaining, July 31, 1865	186	246	432
Of the discharged, there were cured	56	54	110
Died	32	43	75

Deaths from phthisis pulmonalis, 22; epilepsy, 8; paralysis, 7; general paralysis, 6; exhaustion of chronic mania, 5; apoplexy, 2; congestion of brain, 2; softening of brain, 2; cerebritis, 2; diarrhoea, 5; typhoid fever, 4; meningitis, chorea, hepatitis, hypertrophy of heart, valvular disease of heart, emphysema, ascites, erysipelas, old age, and suicide, 1 each.

"During the spring months," remarks Dr. Chapin, "we were visited by an epidemic of fever which, happily, was of short duration, and confined to two halls. The disease was introduced on the 30th of March, by Elizabeth Spellman," who, upon admission, had "all the symptoms of typhus. She died on the 6th of April."

"The second case was that of Mrs. Jones, who lived upon another hall, and who could have had no intercourse whatever with the patient above mentioned." But Mrs. Jones had a habit, not uncommon among the insane, of collecting and hoarding, as valuables, whatever things, valueless to others, she found in her rambles.

"The clothes of Elizabeth Spellman, which were little better than rags, were removed as soon as she was laid in bed, and carried to a distant part of the grounds, beyond the reach, it was supposed, of anybody. But they were not beyond the reach of Mrs. Jones. She unravelled the stockings and the woollens, tore the old dress into strips, and rolled them all into balls, which she deposited, with her other treasures, beneath her bed. How long she worked over these infected rags is not known, but nearly two weeks elapsed that they may have been in her possession before she was attacked with fever. She died on the 12th of May." Three patients in the hall with Spellman, and one in the hall with Jones, were attacked, but recovered.

P. E.

ART. XXVII.—*Proceedings of the American Pharmaceutical Association at the Thirteenth Annual Meeting, held in Boston, Mass., September, 1865. Also the Constitution and Roll of Members.* 8vo. pp. 260. Philadelphia: Merrihew & Son, Printers, 1865.

INCLUDING delegates from the Colleges of Pharmacy of Massachusetts, of the city of New York, of Philadelphia, of Maryland, of Cincinnati, and of St. Louis, there were ninety-six of the six hundred and seventy-one members of the Association present at the meeting in Boston last year, representing sixteen States and the District of Columbia.¹

The proceedings were characterized by good sense, loyalty, courteous dignity, and zealous industry in scientific pursuits. When men voluntarily associated to foster the common interests of their profession, as well as to contribute to its improvement, manifest as much earnestness and intelligence and love of truth in their work as was exhibited at this meeting, they merit, and must command general approbation.

Besides the minutes of the daily sessions of the Association, this volume contains thirteen special and nine volunteer reports and essays, as well as the reports of several committees, all of which are creditable to their authors. The latter embrace a bibliography or lists of recent publications relating to pharmacy, chemistry, and materia medica, and a summary of improvements and novelties connected with the art of the apothecary, collected from various periodicals, so that the work may be regarded as a pharmaceutical annual.

Mr. JOHN M. MAISCH reports the discovery of a new organic acid in the *Rhus toxicodendron*, which he names *toxicodendric acid*. He is satisfied, by experiment, that the poisonous influence of the plant on the human system is due to this principle, which is volatile.

Dr. EDWARD R. SQUIBB contributes a very admirable paper entitled, "Proposed Economy of Alcohol in Percolation, as applied to the Extracts and Fluid Extracts of the Pharmacopœia."

Scrupulous respect to the authority of the U. S. Pharmacopœia is forcibly inculcated; departure from it, and disregard of its formulæ are frequent and customary in many parts of the country. No uniformity of the strength of pharmaceutical preparations can exist so long as different formulæ and processes are followed in compounding them. Dr. Squibb truly says, "There can be but one standard, and there can be but one kind of honesty to that standard, namely, faithful obedience and truthful accuracy."

Our limits permit us simply to commend the "Pharmaceutical Association" and its work to public favour. Practitioners of medicine in the United States have reason to be gratified that the skill and integrity of apothecaries—at least of those embraced in this association—are so eminent that they can be relied on without reservation to do efficiently whatever pertains to them.

W. S. W. R.

¹The number of members of the American Pharmaceutical Association in each State is as follows: the States whose names are in *italics* were represented at Boston:—

Maine 10
New Hampshire 12
Vermont 5
Massachusetts 119
Rhode Island 5
Connecticut 4
New York 119
New Jersey 10
Pennsylvania 98
Delaware 4
Maryland 42
District of Columbia 12

Virginia 9
North Carolina 2
South Carolina 4
Georgia 13
Alabama 3
Mississippi 5
Louisiana 4
Ohio 74
Tennessee 5
Michigan 11
Indiana 15

Illinois 42
Missouri 17
Kentucky 5
Iowa 1
Wisconsin 3
Minnesota 1
California 13
Kansas 1
Washington Territory 1
Canada West 2
Bermuda 1

ART. XXVIII.—*Medico-Chirurgical Transactions*. Published by the Royal Medical and Chirurgical Society of London. Second series, volume the thirtieth. 8vo. pp. 340. London: 1865.

THIS volume contains twenty original communications, ten plates, and four wood-cuts. The numbers of this Journal for the past year contain abstracts of ten of the papers, and we shall now devote attention mainly to the others.

I. *Remarkable Instance of a Growth springing from the Epiglottis, which was Successfully Removed with the Aid of the Laryngoscope*, by GEORGE DUNCAN GIBB, M. D.—The case here recorded is of great practical interest and value. It shows how swallowing may be affected by causes wholly distinct from those at first suspected; and how much relief can be afforded by knowledge and skill under apparently most urgent circumstances.

This case is that of a lady, sixty years of age, who had difficulty in swallowing for two years. Dysphagia was complete with fluids, but she could swallow a little farinaceous food, such as milk and arrowroot, and a little soft bread or an egg. She had no dyspnoea except when she lay on her back in bed at night; then she coughed and expectorated during the whole night; the expectoration being mucous and frothy, sometimes mixed with blood. It was difficult, if not impossible, to pass a bougie. This condition was supposed to be owing to malignant contraction of the œsophagus. By a careful examination, in which the laryngoscope was of considerable service, Dr. Gibb satisfied himself that all the symptoms were owing to a tumour that grew from the lingual surface of the epiglottis. When this was removed, which was readily done by an *écraseur*, and tenderness of the raw surface had subsided, the dysphagia disappeared, and a bougie passed without obstruction or difficulty.

The tumour, which was composed mainly of connective tissue, returned locally at the expiration of nine months, and was removed as before, with the same result. A microscopical examination made at this time determined the growth to be an epithelial cancer.

II. *On Vascular Protrusions of the Eyeball*, by THOMAS NUNNELEY.—In the XLII. volume of the *Transactions*, Mr. Nunneley published a paper entitled, "An Account of Four Cases of Aneurism of, or within the Orbit." He now believes that in the great majority of similar cases the aneurism is within the cranium and not in the orbit. He believes, further, that the prominent symptoms are not essentially dependent upon an aneurism, either true or false, whether in the orbit or in the cranium, as a primary or secondary cause, but are, so to speak, secondary to it; indeed, that they may arise from other and varied causes which produced post-ocular pressure upon the ophthalmic veins. For this reason, as more in accordance with the pathology of the affection, he now uses the name of "Vascular Protrusion of the Eyeball."

In the present communication Mr. Nunneley gives the history of three cases, and of the appearances of the parts in the two post-mortem examinations, and adds some observations upon the nature of the affection.

In an appendix to this paper, Mr. Nunneley discusses the value of the objections raised by Dr. T. G. Morton, in his paper on "Orbital Aneurisms," in the April number of this journal for 1865, to the seat of the disease in these cases being post, rather than intra-orbital.

III. *Cases of Ulcer of the Lower Portion of the Ileum Communicating with the Bladder*, by JOHN MORGAN.—This case derives its interest from its rarity. The patient, a man of sixty years of age, after presenting the symptoms of a tumour in the left iliac fossa for some thirteen months, passed flatus through the urethra and had intolerable pain in the bladder. He afterwards passed some feculent matter with a large quantity of mucus. The quantity of feces passed per anum gradually increased; the bladder by degrees becoming accostumed to the novel character of its contents, ceased to pass mucus in such abundance.

He lived in this way for seven months, for the last three of which all the feces passed through the urethra. At the post-mortem examination the terminal portion of the ileum was found adherent to the bladder and communicating with it directly through an ulcer the size of a sixpence. The other portions of the intestinal tube were perfectly healthy. The bladder was much contracted, with its coats thickened.

IV. *Remarks upon Osteo-Myelitis consequent on Gunshot-Wounds of the Upper and Lower Extremities, and especially upon the Treatment of Stumps affected with Osteo-Myelitis after Amputation necessitated by such Injuries*, by THOMAS LONGMORE.—A full abstract of this excellent paper is published in the July number of this Journal for the past year. The original communication is accompanied by two plates, containing nine figures, representing abnormal appearances in various long bones affected by osteo-myelitis.

V. *Case of Aneurism by Anastomosis of the Scalp, Treated Successfully by Ligature of the Common Carotid and Setons*, by GEORGE SOUTHAM.—An abstract of this paper is published in the July number of this Journal for the past year.

VI. *Congenital Hydronephrosis in a Boy Four Years Old; Repeatedly Tapped; Recovery*; by THOMAS HILLIER, M. D.—This paper contains the history of a case where there was great distension of the abdomen from a cyst that was finally observed to communicate at times, with the right kidney. The patient was at first treated with diuretics and purgatives, from the erroneous belief that the distending fluid was contained in the peritoneal cavity. No benefit resulting, and locomotion and respiration being seriously interfered with, a trocar was introduced and a hundred and two ounces of a clear yellowish fluid were drawn off. This fluid had all the characters of dilute urine. This tapping was repeated and the canula of the trocar was left in the orifice so that the fluid could not collect. As much as two quarts would at times come away in the course of twenty-four hours. At the time of reporting the history of the case, the orifice was closed, and the child's health was pretty good.

VII. *On the Solvent Treatment of Urinary Calculi; an Experimental and Clinical Inquiry*, by WILLIAM ROBERTS, M. D. Communicated by HENRY BENCE JONES, M. D.—An abstract of this very interesting paper is published in the July number of this Journal, for the past year. The rules laid down for carrying out the solvent treatment, which are given more *in extenso* in the paper, are well worthy of study.

The conclusions to be fairly drawn from the experiments of Dr. Roberts and from the observations of others, are:—

1st. That phosphatic calculi are insusceptible to the action of alkaline solvents, but that they offer an encouraging prospect for the use of acid injections into the bladder.

2d. That oxalate of lime calculi are practically insusceptible to acid and alkaline solvents.

3d. That uric acid calculi cannot be successfully treated by alkaline solvents used as injections into the bladder, but may be by the proper use of alkalies taken internally.

A plate is attached to this paper with three figures, representing a stone composed of uric acid and oxalate of lime, removed by cutting after thirty-four days of treatment by alkalies. The solvent action of alkalized urine upon the parts composed of uric acid is very evident.

VIII. *On Delirium, or Acute Insanity during the Decline of Acute Diseases, especially the Delirium of Collapse*, by HERMAN WEBER, M. D.—A short abstract of this paper is published in the July number of this Journal for the past year. Several cases similar to those here recorded have fallen under our observation, and from the difficulty we had ourselves in their management we would call particular attention to the treatment employed by Dr. Weber, from its being so eminently successful. It consisted chiefly in the very free use of

opiates, as much as one-third of a grain of morphia being given every two hours, regularly, until sleep was produced.

IX. *On Intermittent Hæmaturia, with Remarks upon its Pathology and Treatment*, by GEORGE HARLEY, M. D.—This paper contains the histories of two cases where the contents of blood corpuscles, together with granular tube-casts, were passed in the urine at certain times. The hæmaturia was transient and periodic. One of the patients had been subject to intermittent fever, so that the disease could be distinctly traced to malarial poisoning. Both cases were cured by mercurials, given to relieve intense congestion of the chylo-poietic viscera, upon which the disease was supposed to depend, and quinia. The microscopical appearances of the urine are represented by two wood-cuts, displaying nucleated epithelium, large granular corpuscles, mucus-cells, granular tube-casts, free hæmatin, and urates, but no blood-corpuscles.

X. *Notes of Four Cases of Intermittent Hæmaturia*, by WILLIAM H. DICKINSON, M. D.—In the cases recorded in this paper, the effect of treatment is not so satisfactory as in those related in the preceding. The same remedies appear to have been administered, but they may not have been given under the same circumstances, or in the same manner as regards the time and the dose.

We have several times seen, in cases of malarial poisoning, the urine to resemble porter, from the presence of the contents of the blood-corpuscles. Indeed, our attention was first called to the matter from having suffered in this way ourselves, while subject to chills of great severity. The phenomenon is to be explained, we think, by the discoveries made by M. Claude Bernard in regard to the manner in which a turgid condition of the hepatic vena portæ acts upon the renal circulation. When the vessels of the liver are too full of blood, the contents of the portal veins flow into the inferior vena cava through anastomotic veins, first discovered by this physiologist, without passing through the liver; the vena cava being full of blood, there is a reflux into the veins of the kidney, and the urinary secretion is affected. In a severe chill of ague it is easy to believe that the urine may contain blood.

It may be worth while to notice on this occasion how this peculiarity of the portal circulation enables us to understand why the thoracic duct runs so curious a course, emptying itself into the left subclavian vein, instead of simply opening into the inferior vena cava. The chyle is thus not carried to the kidneys, but is mixed with the blood before it reaches those organs.

XI. *Supplement to a Paper entitled "Further Observations on the Structure and Treatment of Uterine Polypi," published in Volume XLIV. of the Medico-Chirurgical Transactions*, by ROBERT LEE, M. D.—The number of this Journal for April, 1862, contains a review of the volume of *Transactions* in which Dr. Lee's paper on the Structure and Treatment of Uterine Polypi was published. In that paper Dr. Lee claimed extraordinary success in the treatment of these growths; of the fifty cases under his care, in all of which he had removed the polypus by operation, not one patient had died. This is attributed by Dr. Lee to his mode of operating; a ligature is applied to the root of the growth, and the greatest attention paid to preventing infection of the system from the sloughing that follows.

In this supplement fifteen more cases are related, all of them successful. They are tabulated, so as to be easily consulted.

XII. *On Amputation of the Leg by a Long Rectangular Flap from the Calf*, by HENRY LEE.—An abstract of this paper is published in the number of this Journal for July, 1865. The operation here described by Mr. Lee, and which he has practised with success, combines the advantages of both the operations recommended by Hey and by Teale; there is a thick flap from the back of the leg, and large nerves are left out of the extremity of the stump.

XIII. *An Account of a Case in which a Sixpence was lodged in the Larynx during Ten Weeks*, by J. BURDON SANDERSON, M. D., and JOHN WHITAKER

HULKE.—An abstract of this paper, together with some remarks made on the occasion of its reading before the Society, is published in the number of this Journal for October of last year.

XIV. *On a Case of the "Hæmorrhagic Diathesis,"* by W. MORRANT BAKER.—An abstract of this paper is published in the October number of this Journal for 1865.

XV. *A Second Series of Fifty Cases of Ovariectomy; with Remarks on the Selection of Cases for the Operation,* by T. SPENCER WELLS.—An abstract of this paper is published in the October number of this Journal for the past year.

XVI. *On the Obstacles to the Re-establishment of Natural Respiration after the Performance of Tracheotomy. Cases, with Remarks,* by THOMAS SMITH.—In this paper Mr. Smith, who is an assistant surgeon to St. Bartholomew's Hospital, and to the Hospital for Sick Children, calls attention to certain obstacles occasionally met with to the re-establishment of natural respiration after tracheotomy, and which are the consequences of the operation. He does not concern himself with those cases where the cause of obstruction that may have necessitated the opening of the trachea persists after the operation.

From a consideration of the cases related by Mr. Smith, it appears that natural respiration after tracheotomy cannot be re-established, from the growth of granulations above and around the canula, narrowing or completely obliterating the passages through the larynx; from impairment or complete loss of the functions of the muscles of the larynx which regulate the admission or exclusion of air through the rima glottidis, and from adhesion of the opposed surfaces of the vocal cords.¹

To avoid these contingencies Mr. Smith recommends the employment of an India-rubber flap, attached to the canula by a plug-shaped extremity. This flap, while it allows the air to pass freely through the canula in inspiration, obliges all air leaving the cavity of the chest to pass through the larynx. An instrument to fulfil the same end was invented by Luer, of Paris, but it is costly and heavy, and requires a special canula for its adaptation.

XVII. *The Application of Sutures to Bone in Recent Gunshot Fractures, with Cases; and Remarks on their Similar Use in some other Fractures and Operations,* by BENJAMIN HOWARD, M. D., Fellow of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York; late Assistant Surgeon, Regular Forces, United States Army. Communicated by John Birkett.—The author describes an operation by which the fractured ends of long bones are to be kept quiet, in apposition, when transportation of the patient is necessary in gunshot fractures. It is suggested also to practise it in certain other cases where there is great displacement in compound fracture. It would appear to be an operation of great value in properly selected cases; what these are we shall take occasion to discuss more fully on another occasion.

XVIII. *On the Pathology of Tetanus, illustrated by Cases and Drawings,* by J. LOCKHART CLARKE. Communicated by Dr. Radcliffe.—An abstract of this paper is published in the number of this Journal for last October. It is illustrated by a plate containing four figures representing morbid appearances in the spinal cord.

XIX. *On Morbid Changes in the Stomach and Intestinal Villi, present in Persons who have Died of Cancer,* by SAMUEL FENWICK, M. D.—This paper, of which an abstract was published in the number of this Journal for last October, is but the beginning, we venture to say, of others, that will show that cancer, as tubercle, is but a local manifestation that originates in an error of general nutrition. It is illustrated by two handsomely-executed plates.

¹ This should always be spelled *chords*; they are strings of a musical instrument.

XX. *Fibroid Degeneration of the Lungs*, by HENRY S. SUTTON. Communicated by Dr. Barlow.—This paper is well worthy of attentive study, particularly by those interested in the study of morbid anatomy. Cases of the kind described by Mr. Sutton are usually considered under the head of "phthisis," which is, we think, an error. This paper is illustrated by four very handsomely executed plates, two of which are coloured. W. F. A.

ART. XXIX.—*Transactions of the Obstetrical Society of London*. Vol. VII., for the year 1865. 8vo. pp. 336. London, 1866.

THE first paper in the present volume of *Obstetrical Transactions* is an account, by Dr. W. S. Playfair, of a case of extra-uterine foetation. The female in whom it occurred was 26 years of age, married, and the mother of two children. She dated her pregnancy from February, 1862; from which time she suffered much from pain and debility until September, 1863, when she died from pure exhaustion. Examination after death rendered it probable that the case was one of ovario-tubal foetation. It was also clear that the foetus had lived up to the end of the natural period of gestation—the bones being those of a full-grown foetus. The soft structures of the foetus were so completely transformed into a yellowish, greasy-looking mass of uniform consistence, into the midst of which portions of the foetal bones were imbedded, that none of them could be made out, except the cranial contents, which probably escaped alteration by being shut off from the surrounding parts by the bones of the skull.

As regards the treatment of the present case, says Dr. Playfair, it is impossible to decide whether any operative measures would have afforded the patient a chance of recovery. The balance of evidence, he remarks, is clearly against the performance of gastrotomy in these cases until nature indicates the route she is likely to take in the extrusion of the foetus, then the aperture formed in the abdominal parietes may be enlarged with comparative safety, so as to admit of the removal of the foetus.

The volume presents the histories of two other cases of extra-uterine foetation. Of one of these, by Dr. J. B. Hicks, an abstract will be found in the Quarterly Summary of this Journal for January, 1866. The other is related by E. Becket Truman. It occurred in a woman, 32 years of age, the mother of four children, of which the eldest was 12 and the youngest 7 years old. Death occurred suddenly, without apparently the nature of the case having been suspected. Upon a post-mortem examination, a quantity of sanguineous serum escaped from the abdominal cavity, while in the latter, extending half way between the umbilicus and pubes centrally, and from the level of the umbilicus in each flank to the pelvis, was found a mass of coagulated blood, filling up the false and true pelves. The bladder was empty; the uterus was enlarged about two diameters in each direction. It was pushed to the left side by a mass, the size of a large orange, placed on a slightly posterior plane to that of the uterus, and reaching to as high a level. On its upper surface was the opening of a small vein, from which blood could be made to issue. The mass was attached at its under surface to the pelvis by recently formed adhesions. On opening the mass, its walls were found to be of varying thickness, being at the thickest part three-eighths of an inch. To the entire inner surface was attached a placenta, much thicker at its upper part than elsewhere. A section at this part showed externally a large corpus luteum surrounded by a pinkish stroma; within this was a thin layer of a fibrous character, and between this layer and the placenta was a mass of blood coagula. Another part of the walls of the tumour was formed of the wall of the Fallopian tube, hypertrophied, with sinuses within, as in the walls of the uterus; there was also deposits of hardened coagula amidst the villi imbedding them. At certain parts, cavities like sinuses were formed, including bunches of villi. On examination under the microscope, however, they were found not to be sinuses; the tissue around them was merely fibrillated blood; no muscular wall tissue could

there be discovered. The true wall became at certain points very thin; the thickness of other parts was really owing to the solid clot of fibrin, in the cavities of which the bunches of villi protruded as if into a sinus. The muscular tissue of the tube was enlarged, as are the uterine fibres in ordinary pregnancy. The placenta was, in its microscopical elements, found to be similar to an intra-uterine one.

Between the placenta and amnion was a spotted or granulated membrane, adherent by a fibrillated substance to the placenta, but merely in contact with the amnion. The amniotic sac was entire, and contained a fœtus of at least three months' development. The pampiniform plexus of the right side was enlarged to three or four times its usual size. The opening of the right Fallopian tube into the uterus was occupied by a soft membrane. The sinuses of the uterus were enlarged; its cavity was occupied by a deciduous membrane, showing a fibrous structure with numerous capillaries, the openings of follicles and a ciliated columnar epithelium. Uterine walls softened; the canal of cervix uteri, as seen in its mid-horizontal section, very small, almost obliterated by enlargement inwards of the cervical wall. Left ovary normal, with many Graafian vesicles, and one corpus luteum, evidently of old date; its yellow colour quite gone. The left Fallopian tube with its fimbriated extremity natural.

The relation of the foregoing case gave rise to considerable debate, particularly in reference to the diagnosis of cases of extra-uterine fœtation, and the possibility of operative interference to save, if possible, the life of the mother. Though many very interesting suggestions were thrown out, nothing conclusive was arrived at.

The description of a case of *double monstrosity*, with an account of the delivery, is given by W. Wills, Esq. The present volume of *Transactions* embraces no less than seven papers, descriptive of different forms of fœtal deformity. It is important, certainly, that all such cases should be put on record. By a comparison of a large number of fœtal deformities occurring under the same or different circumstances, it is fair to infer that much additional light may be thrown upon the physiology of fœtation, and the causes by which are brought about the several deviations from the normal development of the fœtus occasionally met with. But the details of these different malformations would interest only a limited number of our readers, and we must therefore proceed at once to notice matters of a more practical character.

A case of embolism of the pulmonary artery after ovariectomy is related by Dr. E. Parson. The fibrinous deposit was firmly adherent to the greater part of the wall of the right auricle, particularly so in the auricular appendage, where the deposit seems to have begun, and which it almost filled, being accurately moulded to the little muscular eminences. The clot was continued through the tricuspid valve into the right ventricle, almost filling the auriculo-ventricular opening. In the right ventricle it was intricately interlaced with the chordæ tendineæ. As the clot extended along the pulmonary artery to the lungs, it was tubular, and adherent to one of the semilunar valves of the pulmonary artery. Dr. P. believed the deposit to have occurred before death, and to have contributed materially towards shortening the life of the patient. Death took place on the fourth day subsequent to the operation for ovariectomy. A post-mortem examination, besides the clot in the heart, revealed the existence of diffuse peritoneal inflammation of a low form, with a few ounces of sero-purulent fluid in the peritoneal cavity; but little lymph was found anywhere.

Our principal object in noticing especially the paper of Dr. Parson is with the view of presenting to our readers the following commentary of Dr. Richardson, so replete with good sense and sound practical views.

Dr. Richardson observed that Dr. P., in his report of the case, had used the word "embolism." "He regretted this, because the fibrous generation in the heart before the Society was, in truth, not an embolus, according to the strict use of that term; he regretted it also, because the term ought never to be used. 'Embolism' and 'thrombosis' were, in fact, absurd terms, and were doing a great deal of harm, by leading the mind away from the pathological fact to mere terms that had no meaning at the best, and that were constantly misconstrued. At the same time, he was very happy to see the subject of fibrous

deposition receiving at last the attention it deserved. When, fifteen years ago, he revived this question, for, in truth, the question is only a revival of the labours of Chisholm, Gould, and other writers of the two preceding centuries, he was considered as putting forth false notions in pathology, and it was boldly averred that these concretions were always formed after death. The concretion in the present instance, Dr. R. said, was one of the finest specimens he had ever seen of a tubular character. Such a deposition would give rise to a very slow death, extending over two or three days. He next described the symptoms of concretion in the right side of the heart, and remarked that the diagnosis was so plain that the precise location of the clot in the cavity could be determined before death. The view he had formerly held, that these concretions were not produced by the introduction of septic poisons, but were of inflammatory origin, he admitted, must be modified. He had learned by experiment that fibrin might separate in the blood, not only in consequence of a direct increase of it, but by introducing into the mass of blood decomposing substances. Great obscurity, however, still surrounded the inquiry. The same poison that in one experiment would render the blood of an animal universally fluid, would, in another experiment, lead to deposition of fibrin. He could attribute this fact but to one circumstance, viz., that the condition of the air, the meteorological condition at the time of infection, was the determining cause of the course of degeneration that would ensue." In speaking of treatment when signs of concretion are present, Dr. R. remarks, "The remedy really to be looked for was a substance that would rapidly dissolve fibrin, and leave the blood corpuscles intact; such a remedy injected into the veins might probably be of service, but its discovery almost implied a paradox. One point of practice, however, was open to those who performed such operations as ovariectomy. It was to institute an inquiry as to whether the external influences of heat, humidity, barometric pressure, and ozone, did or did not affect the results of the operations. He would recommend that the exact meteorological condition shortly before and shortly after days of operation should be kept, and it should be noted what periods were most favourable to recovery, and what most unfavourable. As these are cases which can wait for the proper period, it was possible the fatality might be lessened by a knowledge thus obtained, of the time when they may be performed with the least danger of evil consequences.

Albert Napper, Esq. gives an account of the amputation of the arm in a female during the seventh month of pregnancy. The place of amputation was about the middle of the humerus, for a scrofulous destruction of the elbow-joint. The progress of the patient after the operation was most favourable. The stump healed well; her appetite returned, and she quickly recovered her usual animated expression of feature. As regards her pregnant condition, she never experienced the slightest inconvenience, either at the time or subsequently.

We have next the "Annual Address" of the retiring President, Dr. H. Oldham. Its leading subject is the condition of the Society, its progress, how it has worked, and the changes which have transpired in it during the past year. Dr. O. indulges in some very pertinent remarks on the importance of rearing up a higher and better instructed class of monthly nurses, by a proper course of instruction and training; due attention being paid to the fitness of the pupils in respect to age, health, character, and general aptitude for the office of nurse in the puerperal chamber.

Dr. Greenhalgh exhibited a uterine polypus, weighing about 1 lb. 9½ oz., removed from a woman æt. 40, married ten years, never pregnant. The patient was put under chloroform. The polypus was seized with a pair of strong vulsellum forceps, and, owing to its large and expanded form, was divided at its anterior third, which on being pulled through the external orifice of the vagina enabled a large and firm pedicle to be reached, which was cut through by a strong pair of curved scissors. There was little bleeding during and none after the operation. Dr. G. strongly urged the desirability of cutting away these growths, and upon the far greater safety of removing them *in situ* to making forcible traction upon the uterus, to bring them within easy reach of the operator.

Dr. B. Woodman presented a specimen of numerous fibroid tumours from

the uterus of a woman about forty years old, married, but of loose character; had never had any children. Of these tumours, numbering about fifteen altogether, some were within the uterus, some in its walls, and some growing out of them into the peritoneal cavity. The os uteri was extremely small and circular. Dr. W. considered the specimen interesting from the connection between unfruitful sexual excitement and fibroid growths.

The same gentleman gave the history of a case of "Chancre on the Os Uteri." The patient was a married woman 21 years of age. She exhibited in a marked degree, the "dirty looking anæmia," or "washed-out" appearance of syphilitic cachexia. Some doubt rested, however, upon the diagnosis. She took iodide of potassium, and steel, with the application of perchloride of iron to the sloughing sores found on the tonsils, etc., and a liberal diet. At first she improved—the right tonsil, which had bled at first rather profusely, began to stop sloughing and to granulate healthily. Soon after, however, she began to refuse food, had slight cough, and some diarrhœa. A few days subsequently, after a slight exacerbation of diarrhœa attended with severe abdominal pain, she died rather suddenly on sitting up in bed. Upon a post-mortem examination, there was found on the posterior lip of the os uteri, and partly involving the right commissure, a well-defined chancre nearly the shape of but larger than a horse bean. The anterior wall of the vagina, which lay in contact with it, had a sore of almost exact identity in shape and appearance, but without any induration. After the patient's death, her husband admitted having had sores "a long time ago," and a "running" more recently.

After two articles which have already appeared in the Quarterly Summary of this Journal, follows the address of the President elect, Dr. Robert Barnes. The address is chiefly taken up with a vindication of the home or domiciliary clinic for the instruction of the obstetrical student, as practised in England, over the hospital clinics of the continent of Europe. Dr. B. maintains that the home clinic "gives the nicest training for the responsibilities of practice," and better secures the comfort of the parturient female; augmenting the chances of well doing in both mother and child, and better guarding the first more effectually from the more dreaded of the maladies incident to childbed. Another portion of the lecture is devoted to a consideration of the position and duties of the obstetrician—his relation to the medical profession, and the character of the cases which fall properly under his care. The organization of the medical profession being very different in England from what it is in this country, the remarks of Dr. B. have little in them to interest directly the American midwife.

J. Rouse, Esq., relates a case of recovery of a still-born child, with unusual marking of the skin, simulating the effects of injury. The child was seen by Mr. R. nearly half an hour after birth. It was said to have been still-born. On examination, the child, a female (the funis had not been interfered with), was, with the placenta, found lying clear of the mother. No action of its heart could be detected, nor any attempt at respiration, the surface was white and cold, the lips livid. After a few moments a very slight twitching about the muscles of the chest was detected. The child was immediately immersed in a warm bath, and, after more than half an hour's perseverance in the Marshall Hall plan, varied occasionally with inflation of the lungs by the mouth, respiration was established—it was, at first, much impeded by spasmodic action about the glottis. To remove the thick coating, especially about the throat and chest, of vernix caseosa, gentle washing with a sponge dipped in oil was resorted to, while the child was still in the bath. This brought to light upon the child's throat, just over the larynx, a patch of abrasion as large as a crown piece and as though caused by a forcible compression with the finger and thumb. There was not the slightest cause, however, to suppose that the child received any kind of violence either during or after birth. The respiration improved gradually, the spasm diminishing. In about half an hour from the first attempt to induce respiration, the child cried, at first feebly and hoarsely. At the end of the second day the mark upon the throat had entirely disappeared, the breathing and swallowing having become both perfect and easy.

A. Harris, Esq., relates a case in which a membrane was expelled from the uterus a few days before delivery at full term. The history of the case is some-

what as follows: On the 3d of April, 1863, the woman gave birth to her second child, which she suckled until November 28th, 1863, a period of seven months, when it died. From April 3d, 1863, to February 6th, 1864, a period of ten months, she had no menstrual or hemorrhagic discharge. There then occurred a sudden loss of blood, with clots and other symptoms as in abortion. On May 9th, 1864, she quickened; on September 3d the membrane described was expelled, and on the 12th she was delivered of a fine healthy child. On the supposition that this third child was born at full time, the woman must have become pregnant about December 7th, 1863, while on February 6th, 1864, the symptoms of abortion occurred. These facts, therefore, render it extremely probable that the membrane in question was the decidua of a fœtus expelled in February, 1864. Drs. Hewitt and Meadows, to whom the membrane was submitted for examination, remark, "that the only possible explanation of the retention of the membrane until the 12th of September, is, that the uterus of this woman is either partially or completely double; that she conceived of twins in December, 1863; that one fœtus was situated in one division of the uterus, and the other in the other; that only one fœtus reached maturity, the other perishing at two months or earlier, while the decidua appertaining to it remained shut up in its own division of the uterus until the time of its expulsion, September 3d, 1864."

George Roper, Esq., presents some facts to controvert the commonly received opinion that labour in primiparous women late in the reproductive period of life, is almost necessarily severe and difficult. Mr. R. would, from his own personal experience, conclude that difficulty in such cases is the exception rather than the rule.

Dr. A. Meadows relates a case of imperforate anus in a young infant, in which an unsuccessful operation was performed. We see nothing especially instructive in the history of the case.

The President showed a fibroid tumour removed by him from the posterior wall of the uterus, partly by enucleation, partly by excision. The cervix was artificially expanded by incisions and mechanical dilatation. The tumour was then drawn down by means of a hook inserted in its lower part; transverse incisions were then made in it by means of a staphyloraphy knife. Its remaining attachments were then removed by the scissors. There was little hemorrhage. At date of report the patient was doing well.

Dr. J. B. Hicks exhibited an improvement in the mode of fastening the rope on his craseur, which will allow any length of rope to be used, thus doing away with the clumsy addition of the endless drum of Weiss.

Dr. Greenhalgh showed a new form of uterine tent made from the hollow stem of the *Laminaria spiralis*. Also a new pelvimeter, in which the index-finger is made available for the purpose of measuring the size of the pelvic brim.

The President exhibited an instrument which he had used for some time past for dividing the cervix uteri in certain cases of dysmenorrhœa, metrorrhagia, and sterility. It resembles the scissors used for the same purpose by Dr. J. M. Sims.

Dr. J. Marion Sims exhibited a new form of Curette for the removal of uterine fungoid granulations.

Dr. Aveling presented a new Hysterotome and Intra-Uterine Spring Tent.

Messrs. Weiss and Son showed a very portable case of instruments for operations on the uterus and vagina. It contains three silver-ended sounds of various sizes, caustic, blue stone, and lint holders, three knives, J. M. Sims' angular hook, double pointed hook, twisted double hook, and stem for introducing spring uterine tents, with two handles which fit all the instruments.

Dr. Barnes laid before the members an instrument made for him for the purpose of facilitating the introduction of the perforated laminaria tent into the cervix uteri.

It is with very great difficulty that a perfectly correct idea of an instrument can be formed from a simple verbal description. We have, therefore, merely given in one connection a list of the several obstetrical instruments to which the attention of the Obstetrical Society of London was called during its sessions of 1865, referring such of our readers who may desire a description of them, to

the volume of *Transactions* before us, where many of them will be found delineated very accurately in a well-executed series of wood engravings.

A very curious case of laceration of the integument of a fœtus occurring during delivery, is related by Mr. R. K. Peirce. After a protracted labour, the child was suddenly expelled without manual interference, a few minutes before the arrival of the physician. On the latter removing it from under the bed-clothes it gave a feeble gasp and then expired. The funis was found broken off quite close to the belly of the child; a little blood was flowing from it. On further examination a laceration was detected through the skin and integuments, about on a level with the scrobiculus cordis, laying open the abdominal cavity from side to side, and exposing the entire upper surface of the liver. The wound had all the appearance of having been made by some sharp instrument; this, however, was completely negatived by undoubted testimony. In the neck, extending transversely, was a similar laceration of the integuments, exposing the deeper seated vessels and muscles. When first seen blood was oozing from both wounds. The head was found to be a mere membranous sac; no vestige of bone could be felt anywhere except at the base of the skull. The lower extremities were arrested in their development and strongly curved inwards.

Drs. Hurley and Meadows who, by appointment, examined the child, remark that the point which especially attracted their attention was the remarkable facility with which the skin could be torn. It was hardly possible to stretch it in any direction without an immediate laceration. It was also extremely thin, beneath it there was little or no areolar or connective tissue, but only bundles of fat vesicles heaped together. Under the adipose layer was a smooth glistening tissue, over the surface of which the skin could very easily glide. The skin under the microscope exhibited hardly any yellow elastic fibrous tissue. It was also very deficient in white or ordinary connective fibrous tissue. To the absence of these two elements, which Drs. H. and M. regard as the result of arrested development, they ascribe the peculiar physical characters of the skin with its feeble powers of resistance. An opinion corroborated by the condition of the skeleton, every portion of which still remained almost entirely in the cartilaginous state.

“Looking to the facility with which the skin could be torn, and to the remarkably flexible character of the entire skeleton, admitting of its being easily bent in any direction, we are of opinion, say Drs. H. and M., that the presentation was an abdominal one, and that the lacerations in the abdomen and neck resulted from the necessary stretching of the skin in the exit of the fœtus through the vagina. From the result of microscopic investigation, we are further of opinion that all the peculiarities of skin and skeleton were due to a simple arrest of the ordinary process of development.”

Dr. A. Rasch relates a case of œdema of the lower half of the body, occurring after a fall in the seventh month of pregnancy—induction of premature labour—recovery. The patient, 24 years old, had always enjoyed good health. At the end of the seventh month of her second pregnancy, she slipped while carrying her child, 16 months old, up a flight of steep stairs, falling down about a dozen steps upon her right breast and belly. She felt great pain, and next day was swollen throughout her belly and legs. When first seen by Dr. R., some nine days after the fall, the expression of her countenance was that of perfect health; tongue clean, intellect undisturbed. No œdema of face, or any portion of the upper half of body. Right mamma tender from bruise. Enormous anasarca swelling of the abdomen as far up as the navel; the skin was raised into large blisters, each corresponding to the area between two of the cicatrices from former labour. Right hypogastrium more swollen, resistant, and more painful than right. Both legs and feet œdematous; right a little more so than left—no pain in them. Labia distended into huge water bladders, with distressing pain. A vaginal examination showed the anterior lip of the os uteri œdematous. Head presentation. Strong movements of fœtus. Urine freely passed, quite clear, of usual colour; loaded with albumen—but no casts—pulse natural. To remove the cause of the œdema and prevent gangrene, the induction of premature labour was decided upon and effected, some fifteen days from the date of the accident. The child was born alive, but died at the end of half an hour. By

the fifth day after delivery all the œdema, and all the albumen of the urine had disappeared. The patient soon recovered and continued afterwards perfectly well. Dr. R. accounts for the œdema and the albuminous urine in this case, by supposing that through the fall which the patient had experienced the gravid uterus was pushed upwards and backwards, especially on the right side, so as to produce such an amount of pressure at the lower part of the inferior cava, as to impede the reflux of the blood from the lower portions of the body.

Mr. H. W. Sharpin relates a case of enormous ovarian dropsy occurring in a healthy looking woman, æt. 54, in which ovariectomy was successfully performed. Two points in this case we are told, are worthy of note, one, a freedom from adhesions of cyst, and the other, the serious symptoms which after the operation seemed to threaten an unfavourable result, and which were solely due to the removal of the pressure which had been exerted, perhaps for some years, upon the lungs and bladder by the enormous dropsical ovary. It is impossible to know to what extent the thoracic and abdominal viscera may have been displaced and compressed, but the bloody purulent matter discharged from the bladder, and the violent and incessant coughing, which really foreboded immediate danger to life, but ceased immediately upon the application of a tight bandage, showed very clearly that a portion of the lungs and the bladder had been compressed to a serious extent.

Dr. J. B. Hicks relates the case of a large fibrous tumour of the uterus, in which spontaneous sloughing took place, followed by acute peritonitis and death. The patient was 40 years old, married, but sterile. Had suffered for many years from extensive uterine hemorrhage, rendering her appearance always anemic. She had also suffered for many years from tertiary syphilis.

The President exhibited a large fibroid tumour, expelled spontaneously from the uterus several weeks after labour. It consisted of fibre-cells, resembling those of the muscular wall of the uterus. The patient was actually under care for vesico-vaginal fistula.

Dr. W. B. Woodman relates two cases of hydatidiform degeneration of the chorion, associated with albuminuria. The first was in a married woman, 36 years old; the mother of four children. Had one miscarriage. Catamenia regular for six months afterwards, then absent for six months. Believed herself pregnant. Abdomen greatly distended with fluid. Some general anasarca most marked in lower extremities and labia pudendi. Cardiac murmurs with systole at both base and apex. Urine scanty, albuminous, no casts. Flooding set in and continued, more or less, for eight days, when, with labour-pains, there was suddenly expelled a mass, two to three pounds in weight, of hydatids, varying in size from that of a large gooseberry to that of a pin's head. With these was some degenerated spongy placental tissue. No traces of echinococci or other parasite. The structure of hydatids was evidently that of cystic disease of chorion. Most of them had undergone fatty degeneration. Some contained blood, others albuminous fluid. Os uteri interior had a rugged hard appearance, as if fissured. Liver apparently diminished in size. Patient doubtless too fond of stimulants. The patient recovered.

The second case was in a single female 24 years old, who, however, had reason to believe herself pregnant. She was admitted into the London Hospital with general anasarca, especially of lower extremities; there was also œdema pulmonum, with dyspnoea, and some bronchitis. For about three and a half months catamenia absent. For six weeks preceding her entrance into hospital, had almost continual flooding, preceded by pain in back and frequent calls to urinate. Abdomen greatly enlarged. Has a brown line on its surface, with numerous lineæ albicantes, as also on upper part of both thighs. Breasts large, but rather flaccid, wide and large areolæ; follicles evident; venation less than was to be expected. Os uteri reached with difficulty—was patulous, with a velvety feel, and filled with a soft spongy body. Distinct *bruit placentaire*. No sound of a fetal heart. Urine rather scanty, loaded with albumen, with a few granular and epithelial casts, and a kind of general moulting along all the genito-urinary tract. On the 14th of April, 1864, flooding set in with pains like labour, and on the fifteenth there began to be expelled hydatidiform bunches, with considerable hemorrhage. As the hand could not be introduced into the uterus, plugging

was first resorted to, then ergot. In the evening a wash hand basin full of hydatids, from the size of a grape to that of a pin's head, was discharged. Some had slender pedicles, others were closely attached. No trace of echinococci. Patient much exhausted by the hemorrhage; vomiting continued during 16th and 17th April, with great dyspnoea and retention of urine. She died on the 18th, apparently of syncope.

On examination after death, body found still œdematous; had a very blanched look. Breasts contained milk. Pericardium loaded with some six ounces of yellow serum. Mitral valves a little thickened, not quite competent. Both sides of heart partially filled with soft yellowish clots. Lungs much congested at their bases. Otherwise healthy. Liver pale, yellowish, rather soft; its acini unusually well marked. A good deal of serous fluid could be squeezed from it. Kidneys large, of about twice their average weight, like white marble, with arboriform vascularity. They were softened, their cortical substance diminished, pyramids unusually well marked. Spleen soft, diffuent. A good deal of turbid flaky serum in abdominal cavity. A purulent fluid in pelvis. Both ovaries very large, studded with cysts, of which one or two in each ovary contained blood—one or two had apparently burst into peritoneal cavity. Fallopian tubes contained cord-like fibrinous casts. Uterus, size of small foetal head, rather flabby, its walls about an inch thick, covered with a spongy mass as of hydatids, much discoloured. Sinuses would admit a large goosequill. Its cavity would contain about six fluidounces.

A third case, similar in character to the two foregoing, is related by Dr. R. Barnes. The patient was 42 years old; the mother of eight children, had aborted thrice. June 17th, considerable anasarca of legs, commenced three weeks previously. Has suffered for twelve months from sickness and tenderness, with occasional vomiting. Has headache in recumbent posture; drowsy. Face pale; tongue furred, yellowish; great thirst; urine scanty, high coloured, sometimes very pale; in passing it pain at bottom of stomach. Has suffered for two months from burning pain in region of womb. Her last child three years old, was suckled two years, reducing the mother's strength. Had at three months an abortion, about a year previously. Since, until Christmas, menstruation regular, from that time a slight discharge now and then. During last two months a continuous discharge of coloured fluid. Pulse rapid, feeble. On 18th June whilst in bed had a vaginal discharge; on rising passed a large quantity of blood, leaving her very anæmic; pulse 108; headache. No pain preceded hemorrhage. Supposed herself pregnant. A tumour existed at the usual seat of pregnant womb, firm and elastic, tender on pressure. Os uteri the size of a shilling. Substance of cervix, just beyond orifice, rigid. No placental murmur or foetal sound to be detected. On upper part of left side of tumour there is a small mass the size of a walnut, which slips about under the fingers, very sensitive when compressed. Breasts quite flaccid. Galvanism was applied to uterus, which contracted, and a bunch of hydatids were brought down. Vagina now plugged and abdomen bandaged. Removal of plug at night allowed the discharge of more hydatids, with slight oozing. Uterine tumour much smaller. The patient blanched and weak. Ordered eggs, brandy, tincture of ergot, and laudanum. Passed a good night; abdomen sore on pressure; a small quantity of hydatids again removed, causing uterine contraction. After a shivering fit another mass of hydatids was passed with pain like that of labour. Womb now firmly contracted, the size of a cocoanut; pulse 132, prostration, abdomen tender, vomiting, great debility, some rigidity of arms, stupor, retching, sighing. Three ounces bloody urine drawn off. She died during the night of June 19th.

Section cadaveris.—Abdomen tympanitic, integuments becoming emphysematous. Four or five ounces turbid serum, with flakes of lymph, in pelvic cavity. Intestines very pale, uterus size of a cocoanut, peritoneal coat and whole structure very pale, walls flabby. A fibroid tumour the size of a large orange in the right wall near the neck. The cavity contained a brownish flocculent membrane, half detached, but no hydatids. Left ovary contained small cysts. Kidneys large, pale, and considerably advanced in fatty degeneration. The placenta was almost entirely converted into cysts, some as large as a walnut. The cysts were held together only by shreds of chorion, fatty looking and easily lacerated.

Chorion full of granular fat, exhibiting no trace of vascularity. Walls of cysts were composed of delicate fibrous membrane, with nuclei interspersed, and some bright fat granules. The decidua was a loose shred, consisting of elongated fibres and nuclei somewhat fatty.

Dr. B. Woodman showed a dermoid cyst, removed after death from the right ovary to which it was attached, apparently in the situation of the pons ovarium. The ovary itself was converted into an enormous polycystic tumour, larger than the gravid uterus, filled with colloid matter, in which were a few cells, many nuclei; granular matter, and exudation corpuscles in great abundance. No evidence of malignancy. Ovariectomy would have been performed, had not, apparently from the bursting of one or two of the cysts, peritonitis early set in and destroyed the patient. Her age was 47, married, but separated from her husband. Two attempts at tapping had been made some weeks before death, but the colloid matter would not run through the trocar. Turning the dermoid cyst inside out displayed two rudimentary teeth, and hairs, growing from its inside. Its contents were hair and sebaceous matter.

A curious case of serous tumour in the occipital region of a new-born infant much larger than the child's head, is related by J. Waits. The tumour continued to enlarge rapidly. A puncture into it with a grooved needle gave discharge to a quantity of serous fluid. The infant's body gradually wasted, and it died about three and a half months after birth. Shortly before death the tumour had attained the size of a two pound loaf. An examination after death showed an opening in the occipital bone large enough to admit the index finger, through which the membranes of the brain with a portion of cerebral substance protruded. The tumour was divided through the centre, laterally, by the membranes. The child's neck was very short—the chin resting on the sternum.

Anteflexion of gravid uterus. Dr. G. Hewitt related a case in which anteflexion of the uterus, which existed before pregnancy, and had been nearly cured, was found to be present at the fourth month of pregnancy, to such an extent as to interfere with the rising of the womb out of the pelvic cavity. The os was found high up in the vagina, and the body of the uterus tilted forwards and pressing deeply on the bladder. The soft parts greatly swollen, micturition very frequent, acute pain. Patient ordered to lie in bed. In three days the uterus was liberated from the pelvis, and the symptoms were relieved. Dr. H. stated that anteflexion of the gravid uterus was very rare—he had not met with any description of it.

A most interesting paper on the varieties of form imparted to the foetal head by the various modes of birth, is presented by Dr. Robert Barnes. Of this paper we shall not pretend to present to our readers any analysis. To do so in a manner that would furnish to them any useful idea of the facts it sets forth would demand far more space than it would be proper to devote to a single subject, however interesting, which, like that of which Dr. B. treats, can lead to no immediate and daily recurring practical application. After noting one or two of the author's preliminary remarks, we must refer our readers to the paper itself for information in respect to his researches into the varied moulding of the foetal head during the different modes of birth. The paper is illustrated by some twenty-eight diagrams. These diagrams, drawn from nature, bring out conclusions "not without interest in illustration of the mechanism of parturition."

"For example, the occipital elongation producing the sugar-loaf head, resulting from protracted labour, under the ordinary vertex presentation, with perhaps slight contraction of the pelvis, is familiar to every one. But the accompanying lateral and asymmetrical moulding which the head undergoes has been little if at all noticed. Yet it is made manifest by the accompanying diagrams. As far as Dr. B.'s observations go, they seem to prove that under all modes of birth, if the head is even a little delayed in its transit through the brim, it will be equally moulded on the two sides. The side which is squeezed against the promontory of the sacrum will be always somewhat flattened, whilst the side which is directed towards the symphysis pubis, suffering generally less compression, preserves more of its normal rotundity.

"There is still another peculiarity in the form impressed upon the head during

labour. It is one very difficult to represent by diagrams, sections, or even by photographs. It is nevertheless real, and becomes evident on observation of nature. The pelvic canal may be likened to a rifled gun. It is so constructed as to render the propulsion of the foetal head in a direct course impossible. The head is made to revolve on its own axis during propulsion in a great degree as a conical ball revolves in its passage from a rifled gun. The difference consists mainly in the circumstance that in the case of the head this is at starting nearly globular, and acquires its conicity in transitu. Now this cone, being the result of the moulding of a plastic body pursuing a helicine course, is somewhat twisted or screwed, and the lowermost or presenting apex is not formed in the median line of the head, but on one side of the sagittal suture. The deformation of the head is therefore threefold: 1. Elongation, or conification; 2. Asymmetrical flattening of one side; 3. Twisting of the conified portion upon its axis.

"As a general rule, it may be stated that the point of the fœtus which presents in the axis of the brim, which has to lead the way, so to speak, for the rest of the head, undergoes more or less bulging out or elongation. Thus, if the vertex presents, we have the common sugar loaf moulding; if the face or forehead presents, the forehead will acquire undue, even monstrous prominence, whilst the occipital region will be flattened in."

"For a long time after birth it will generally be possible, by careful observation of the head, informed by such knowledge as may be gathered from the accompanying diagrams, to tell what was the presentation, and how the child was delivered. This is a point not without interest in a medico-legal aspect. It is true, generally, that after birth the head quickly returns towards its natural globular form, but this return is only approximate, it is rarely complete."

The diagrams are so arranged in Dr. B.'s paper as to exhibit in order—1st. The natural or standard form and size of the foetal head at term; 2d. The forms imparted to the head under turning in contracted pelvis; 3d. Head born after turning, brim contracted, face presenting; 4th. Head born after craniotomy—an exceptional case; 5th. Forms acquired under tedious labour, terminated by forceps. No special illustration is given of the modification of form impressed upon the head in first labours of the ordinary kinds with head presenting. The form so acquired, is according to Dr. B. the same in character as in lingering labour, but generally less in degree.

Dr. Barnes exhibited the uterus of a woman who had died after simple tapping. There was extensive ascites, with advanced cirrhosis of the liver and old and recent peritonitis. One Fallopian tube had become occluded by inflammation, and then distended in a cystic form by an accumulation in it of fluid.

Dr. J. Way relates the history of a case of twin pregnancy in which one child had apparently arrived at full term without any defect of development. Its presentation, as well as the progress and termination of labour, was natural. The other fœtus, which seems to have perished at about the fourth month of intra-uterine life, had been felt in the first stage of labour presenting between the bag of membranes and the living child, and the posterior wall of the uterus. It was easily moved upwards, and ceased to be felt as the head of the mature child descended. It was expelled with the placenta, to which it was attached by a slender cord. The portion of the placenta into which the cord was inserted was dense, hard to the touch, yellowish in colour, and under the microscope presented the aspect of fatty degeneration. The larger portion of the placenta, including that into which the cord of the mature child was inserted, presented nothing abnormal.

Fred. Lawton, Esq., relates a very curious case of vascular (erectile) tumour in the sheath of the funis of a new-born infant. The tumour was of the size and shape of a medium jargonelle pear: its neck communicating with the cavity of the abdomen through the umbilical opening, and strongly adherent to the cord, the coverings being common to both. The cord was divided above the tumour. The tumour felt tough, rather fleshy. When the child cried it, as well as the investing membranes and tegumentary portion of the umbilicus enlarged very much; the tumour from engorgement of blood, and the membranes from protrusion of intestine. Pressure reduced the one, and somewhat diminished the size of the other. The hernia being returned, pressure was applied by means of

a pad and bandage. No change occurring after a day or two, the outer covering of the tumour, over its fundus, was carefully divided, when a little yellow serum exuded. A small opening was now made in the second covering, through which blood of a dark colour flowed pretty freely; a pad and bandage were immediately applied. On the third day subsequently, the integument around the umbilicus was found to be much inflamed, the umbilical opening was large enough to admit four fingers, and more or less oval; at its lower part protruded a knuckle of gut, at its upper the non-pulsating pyriform tumour; the cord was at the right-hand side, between the protruding gut and tumour. The membranes were gangrenous and the fundus of tumour bare; itself of a dark colour; to the touch, it felt firm, unless strongly compressed, when it became reduced in size and somewhat flaccid. No impetus was given to the tumour when the child cried.

It was resolved to reduce the hernia, and then apply a ligature around the neck of tumour, and excise it. Upon applying the ligature, in consequence of the gangrenous condition of the membranes, it cut through them. The abdominal muscles at the same time becoming rigid, eight to ten inches of gut were protruded. The tumour was now excised above the ligature, the cord retied as low down as possible, and the protruded intestine carefully returned. While the stretched integument was kept intact, four common needles were passed through and secured by the twisted suture, and then a pad and bandage applied. Until three days after the operation the child's bowels were not moved, then they acted freely. In consequence of deficiency of milk on part of mother the child was nursed by a neighbour. It was ordered small doses of brandy; it had no bad symptoms—entire recovery.

Dr. R. Greenhalgh relates a case of pregnancy with extreme distortion of pelvis; craniotomy, cephalotripsy; Cæsarian section; death thirty-one hours after latter operation. The dimensions of the pelvis were from one anterior superior spinous process to the opposite ten inches; external antero-posterior diameter $4\frac{3}{6}$ inches; transverse diameter of brim 5 inches; conjugate diameter, left side, $1\frac{3}{4}$, right side, $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch, oblique diameter $4\frac{3}{8}$ inches, transverse diameter of outlet $3\frac{3}{8}$ inches, antero-posterior, 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches, oblique, 15 inches; from centre of sacrum to upper part of pubic arch $2\frac{3}{4}$ inches, from top of sacrum to coccyx $4\frac{3}{8}$ inches.

Dr. G. was induced to attempt delivery *per vias naturales* in this case, even knowing as he did the great deformity and contraction of the pelvis, because, 1. The patient during her first labour had been thus delivered; 2d. The child was premature; 3. It was a footling presentation; 4. The child was dead.

"I must confess," he remarks, "I was most anxious, as I always had been, to avoid the Cæsarian operation, which I have now performed six times, because it has been said that I have sought every opportunity to deliver by that operation. The experience which I have derived from this and other cases of craniotomy and extraction in *extreme* distortion of the pelvis, has determined me for the future never again to attempt delivery *per vias naturales* unless there are fully two inches in some part of the antero-posterior diameter of the brim. I believe that craniotomy and extraction by the crotchet or cephalotribe in cases of extreme deformity of the pelvis is more difficult and probably more fatal to the patient than the Cæsarian operation, and, moreover, by the latter operation, if timely performed, there is even a probability that the child's life may be spared."

In connection with the foregoing we will notice a later paper of Dr. R. Greenhalgh, on the comparative merits of the Cæsarian section and craniotomy in cases of extreme distortion of the pelvis. The general conclusion of Dr. G. is the same as that laid down in the above paper.

"After weighing the facts thus adduced, as far as they go, I feel confident," he says, "that the most sceptical must admit that the mortality to the mother is as great, if not greater, from craniotomy and crotchet operations in *extreme* distortion of the pelvis, as in the Cæsarian section; whereas, by the latter, which is a far easier operation and therefore requiring less dexterity, the child stands a chance of life, which by the former procedure is wholly precluded. Nothing could induce me again, even under the most favourable circumstances,

to attempt delivery by the crotchet where the conjugate, true diameter of the brim does not fully measure two inches, exclusive of the soft parts. Cases have arisen, and will again arise, where a larger space exists, but where, either from a generally distorted or altered shape of the pelvis, or from great exhaustion, or from inflammation and swelling of the passages, or malposition of the child, and more especially where the child is alive, in which I would not hesitate to prefer the Cæsarian section to craniotomy."

How are we to secure the conditions most favourable for the success of the operation? "By avoiding," Dr. G. replies, "the routine midwifery alluded to in an early part of this communication, and by making a special study of each case as soon as it represents itself. Further, I must strongly protest against the too rigid observance of that oft-repeated axiom that 'meddlesome midwifery is bad,' which, however good in days gone by, when the practitioner was comparatively ill informed, and midwifery instruments were of rude construction, has, in the present day, tended to foster a system of unnecessary and even dangerous delay. In conclusion, I am quite confident that far fewer evils result from too early interference than from too great delay; I will, therefore, venture strongly to impress upon my hearers that *laissez faire* midwifery is bad."

Dr. Barnes exhibited a voluminous fibroid tumour weighing one pound and thirteen ounces, removed from the uterus of a lady. It partly occupied the pelvis, but the greater part rose above the symphysis into the abdomen. It was removed by elongating it by transverse or spiral incisions, and then enucleating and bringing it away. Recovery perfect and uninterrupted.

Dr. Russell laid before the Society the particulars of a case of hydatiform degeneration of the ovum, removed by hand from the uterus of a female forty-five years old. Previously to its removal the abdomen in its size gave the appearance of a seven or eight months' pregnancy.

Dr. Aveling related a case of ovariectomy, in which the pedicle was tied and returned, and the ligature removed in forty-eight hours, with complete recovery. In this case Dr. A. used two hollow coils of iron wire to secure the ligature, though he believes that one would have been sufficient. Mr. S. Wells, in commenting on this case, remarked that no one method of dealing with the pedicle could be applicable in all cases of ovariectomy. "A long pedicle was dealt with so successfully by the clamp that he desired no better method; but it was still doubtful what was the best mode of proceeding when the pedicle is short. Tying it and cutting off close to the ligatures, and returning it and ligatures, often gave excellent results. But in feeble persons, where copious serous effusion might be expected, and it appeared desirable to maintain an opening for drainage, the plan of the earlier ovariectomists, of leaving the ends of silk or twine ligatures hanging out through the wound was so unsuccessful that the wire coil of Dr. A. would probably prove of great advantage in cases of short pedicle in weak patients.

Mr. G. Roper relates a case of difficult labour connected with a non-evolted and hypertrophied state of the cervix uteri. Death fifteen days after delivery from pyæmia. "This case," remarked Dr. R., "presented one of the greatest obstetrical difficulties I have met with. The patient from loss of blood, the case being one of partial placenta prævia, and from the length of time she had been in labour, was in a state of serious exhaustion when I commenced her delivery; several times it was thought proper to abandon further attempts at delivery in consequence of a belief that she was actually moribund. The resistance of the os externum constituted the chief difficulty. One of two ways of proceeding only could be adopted—evisceration and dismemberment of the fœtus, or craniotomy, with or without turning, with a certain amount of force necessary to extract the body entire. The first method must necessarily be long and severely trying—scarcely to be endured by the nearly worn out powers of life. In the second, with a more speedy delivery, there is the risk of injury to the uterine structures by the needed force, however judiciously applied. In the present case the latter course was pursued, and although no laceration nor fissuring happened, it is presumed that a degree of bruising and straining of the cervical textures must have resulted sufficient to cause suppurative action and conse-

quent pyæmia, the more likely to occur after a labour complicated with placenta prævia." No examination after death could be obtained.

Dr. Ronth exhibited a specimen of fibro-cystic disease of the uterus. An exploratory incision had been made for its removal, and failed. Constant sickness, due doubtless to chloroform, continued with little intermission for thirty-six hours. Death was due to hemorrhage from rupture of vessels within the cysts. The growth was highly vascular. Brown's actual cautery had been used on portions of the mesentery with perfect success.

Dr. J. B. Hicks exhibited a polypus weighing two and a quarter pounds removed by the wire rope écraseur. Before removal it reached from the vulva to the umbilicus. The patient did well.

Dr. Ritche exhibited a dermoid cyst developed in the Fallopian tube. It had been suggested that some ovarian tumours result, not so much from disease of the ovary, as from intra-ovarian development of an ovum, that, in point of fact, some ovarian tumours are analogous to the different forms of moles met with in the uterus. It had been objected that, if such were true, then we should expect to find occasionally dermoid cysts in the uterus, similar to those developed in the ovary. Dr. R. has met with many recorded cases of intra-uterine dermoid cysts, but they had almost invariably been considered as cases where an ovarian tumour had ulcerated through the uterine walls, and thus entered the uterine cavity. He had never met with an intra-uterine dermoid cyst, he now, however, exhibited to the Society a dermoid cyst developed in the Fallopian tube. It was about as large as a plum; it contained four loculi, filled, originally, with a creamy fluid. Each loculus was lined with a serous-looking membrane, studded at intervals with projecting dendritic growths, similar to those so frequently met with in ovarian cysts. It contained also a plate of bone one and one-half inches long by about half an inch broad. Probes passed through the Fallopian tube from its uterine and fimbriated extremities; they did not enter the cavity of the cyst, but impinged against its external envelope. So close was the connection between the cyst and dilated Fallopian tube that artificial separation was impossible.

The specimen had formed part of the Fallopian tube of a lady upon whom ovariectomy had been performed. Both ovaries were extensively diseased, and it was certain that the tumour above described had formed no part of either of them.

Dr. Greenhalgh relates a case of which the following is an outline. A female applied to him for what she supposed to be "falling of the womb." There was a swelling, about the size of a large walnut, protruding about an inch from the orifice of the vagina, and arising from the posterior margin of the os uteri. As she was four and a half months advanced in her fifth pregnancy, any interference with the growth was at first deemed inadvisable. Within a fortnight, however, it had increased in size to that of an ordinary orange, causing protrusion of the cervix uteri, and producing such local irritation as to induce Dr. G. to attempt its removal. The tumour was somewhat pedunculated and very vascular. A clamp was applied on its upper part close to the os uteri, and by it considerable pressure was made for some minutes, after which the entire mass was slowly burnt off on the distal side of the clamp. Not a drop of blood was lost. For eight hours the patient experienced no pain, labour then set in, and at the end of sixteen hours the fœtus in its membranes was expelled. A careful microscopic examination proved the tumour to have been simply a hypertrophy of the tip of the uterus.

Dr. G. also exhibited a large fibrous uterine tumour $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length, $11\frac{1}{2}$ in circumference, and 6 around the pedicle, which he had removed by Weiss' wire écraseur. The patient, æt. 38, mother of several children, had suffered for two and a half years from uterine hemorrhage by which she had become greatly reduced. After taking some ergot, the polypus was expelled from the uterus into the vagina, which it completely blocked up, occasioning retention of urine, which required the frequent use of the catheter.

Dr. R. U. West describes a very curious and unusual variety of the battledore placenta. The several varieties of this abnormal form of the placenta constitute

a subject of very great interest, though one of comparatively little practical importance.

Two cases of obstructed labour are related by Professor Berry, of Birmingham. The last especially of these cases teaches us that in the practice of midwifery "our treatment of difficult cases should not always rest on what is possible, but upon what can be done safely and for the best interests of both lives."

Several papers in the present volume of *Transactions* have been passed by without notice, inasmuch as an abstract of them has already appeared in the quarterly summaries of this journal.

D. F. C.

ART. XXX.—*On Diseases of the Veins, Hæmorrhoidal Tumours, and other Affections of the Rectum.* Entirely rewritten. By HENRY LEE, F. R. C. S., Surgeon to St. George's Hospital, &c. &c. Second edition. 8vo. pp. 190. London: John Churchill & Sons.

It is not easy to say which of the two parts of which this volume is composed is practically the more important or interesting to professional readers. That on diseases of the veins, although a second edition of a well-known Jacksonian Prize Essay, published so long ago as 1850, still has the advantage of greater novelty of pathological views as well as of more serious gravity in the nature of the maladies discussed. The second part, however, is scarcely less valuable in its therapeutic suggestions and its clinical accounts of the endless characteristics and varieties of a class of affections which cannot be too closely and constantly studied under the guidance of such a teacher as Mr. Henry Lee.

Among all the numerous works upon the subject of diseases of the rectum, we have not met with one which presents, within so small a compass, a greater amount of clear and positive instruction in regard to the points of diagnosis and treatment upon which a practitioner in active service, or a hospital surgeon, would like to be informed or to have his own experience and practice efficiently sustained. No one can read the different chapters of this part without gaining something from the perusal, which he would not be likely to derive from the more systematic works; and hence we feel disposed to recommend it alike to juniors and seniors as a genuine and very useful clinical guide.

The peculiar modes of treatment long since recommended by the author are to be found chiefly in the chapter on hæmorrhoidal tumours, and comprehend the surgical treatment by nitric acid (as originally resorted to by Houston of Dublin, and more recently advocated by Henry Smith of London), singly, or in combination with incision; the instrument devised, in 1848, by the author for clamping the tumours or mucous membrane, to provide against hæmorrhage; the uses and applications of these methods; excision, combined with the use of the acid, or actual cautery. Preferring one or the other of these methods, according to circumstances, he does not entirely exclude the ligature; and carefully points out the cases in which he would advise the employment of the latter.

For a fuller idea of the opinions of Mr. Lee, in this second part of his volume, and of his agreeable and instructive mode of illustrating and expressing them, we must refer to the well-filled pages of the book.

The first part will interest a large number of inquirers as the latest exposition of the questions concerning purulent infection, pyæmia, septicæmia, phlebitis, thrombosis, embolism, and other verbal representatives of different morbid processes about which a great deal has been said, thus far, to very little definite and practical purpose, so far as curative indications are included. The vast and terrible experience of the last four years, in this country, has rendered all really sound discussion of these hitherto mysterious and too often irresistible forms of disease, of great value to hundreds who formerly might have paid little attention to such subjects.

Every effort in an authoritative form, especially within the convenient limits of Mr. H. Lee's essay, and with his practical illustrations and applications, will

be gladly received and, doubtless, earnestly seconded in a more enlightened study of these most difficult topics. We need much further investigation of the phenomena already so well studied by Mr. Lee, and other later pathologists, not only to direct us in the rational treatment of these frightful disorders, but to deliver all classes of teachers and students from the still puzzling confusion of language so prevalent in regard to them. Mr. Lee's new essay does much to lighten our path in many respects, and helps us over some formerly insurmountable difficulties; but even his pages will involve the reader more or less in the same trouble as to definitions—a trouble which must probably continue until the precise nature of the conditions supposed to be meant by purulent infection, septicæmia, pyæmia, and other such terms are better understood.

The chief practical, or rather therapeutical, points of Mr. Lee's work on the disorders of the venous circulation are to be found under the head of treatment of acute phlebotic disease by surgical and mechanical means; also in the chapters on varicose veins and on varicocele. In these chapters he gives a very interesting and instructive account of his well-known operation for the obliteration of venous trunks by means of acupressure, with the gum-elastic band, and subcutaneous section of the vessel between the pins.

One of the principal objects of his publication, he tells us, is to demonstrate how far the mischievous results of the current of blood through an injured or disordered vein carrying whatever it may have received *towards* the central vital organs, may be remedied or prevented; "and how far the system may in certain cases be saved from the dangerous train of symptoms which naturally follow the disintegration, decomposition, and removal of blood-clots in living animals." The task here proposed appears to have been so well performed, in addition to that undertaken in the second portion, that we feel bound to recommend the whole as a new and valuable production which ought to be considered at far greater length than we can here afford to it, and which certainly should, as we hope it may, have a wide circulation in this country. E. H.

ART. XXXI.—*Lehrbuch der Hebammenkunst*. Von Dr. BERNHARD SCHULTZE, Professor der Geburtshülfe, Director der Entbindungsanstalt und der Hebammenschule zu Jena. Mit 62 Holzschnitten. Zweite Auflage. 8vo. pp. 288. Leipzig, 1864.

Compendium of Midwifery. By Dr. B. SCHULTZE, Professor of Obstetrics, Director of the Lying-in Institution and of the School for Midwives at Jena. With sixty-two wood-cut illustrations. Second edition.

WE have seldom met with a more admirable compendium of midwifery than the one before us. Concise, but sufficiently clear and comprehensive, it presents to the student a most instructive exposition, in bold outline, of the anatomy of the female, especially of her pelvis and generative organs, with their functions, the form and structure of the fœtal head, the history and progress of pregnancy and of natural labour, phenomena of the puerperal period and that of suckling, with the proper treatment during these periods of both mother and child. Having disposed of these subjects, we are next presented by the author with a notice of the more prominent of the deviations from the general course of pregnancy, childbirth, and of the puerperal period generally, and of various causes, as well on the part of the mother as on that of the child, by which the period of suckling may be disturbed.

The compendium of Dr. S. is confined to the history and management of natural labour, or that which can be terminated with safety to the mother and child without the necessity of manual or instrumental interference; the work being prepared mainly for the licensed midwives of Saxony, who are prohibited from performing any operation beyond those which may be required to facilitate the progress of a case of natural labour. Though thus confined in the scope of its teachings, the work will nevertheless be found by the younger students of

midwifery to be a very valuable introduction to the study of the more profound treatises on obstetric science and art, or preparatory to the bedside instructions given in a clinical school.

The work is illustrated by sixty-two very excellent wood-cuts—among certainly the very best, for accuracy and clearness, we have yet seen. They are executed with a boldness and freedom which remind us of the etchings of some of the older masters.

In order to illustrate the changes which occur in the height and bulk of the womb and the position of the os uteri during the progress of gestation, and the corresponding changes in the form and size of the abdomen of the pregnant female, Dr. S. gives a diagram having a perpendicular row of figures showing the height to which the fundus of the womb attains by the end of the 16th, 20th, 24th, 28th, 32d, 36th, and 40th weeks of pregnancy. Other numbers, commencing with 0 for the line of the abdomen in the non-pregnant female, indicate the shape and projection of the abdomen and the position of the navel at the termination of the 28th, 36th, and 40th weeks of gestation; while other numbers, placed within the pelvis, show the position of the os uteri in the non-pregnant female, and at the close of the 8th, 24th, 36th, and 40th weeks from conception. Dr. S. has issued in a separate and much enlarged form, and in colours, the same diagram; we do not, however, perceive that it gives any clearer or more precise idea of the facts the diagram is intended to illustrate than that which occupies rather less than a page of the volume before us. The idea of this diagram is a very good one; with some slight improvements it might be rendered still more useful to the student of midwifery.

D. F. C.

ART. XXXII.—*Disease; a part of the Plan of Creation.* The Annual Discourse before the Massachusetts Medical Society, May 31, 1865. By BENJAMIN E. COTTING, M. D. 8vo. pp. 45. Boston: David Clapp & Son. 1866.

THE author of this well-written annual discourse endeavours to show that disease is a part of the plan of the creation—"one of the myriad expressions of Divine thought," and "not a mere accident in the history of our race, or due to unwarrantable experiment upon our powers of endurance." He conjectures that "the idea of Disease must have originated in the Creator's mind, and its development formed a part of the plan of creation from the beginning. The ultimate purpose of such a plan it is not for man to determine. Deliberately devised, diseases do not necessarily imply 'gratuitous malevolence;' for, despite of some philosophers, it is quite possible to conceive of the earth and all that is therein, simply as an expression of Divine thought, without reference to the question of good and evil." To sustain such a notion the author brings forward testimony gathered from fossil remains, among which have been found evidence of caries, necrosis, exostosis, ankylosis, reunion of fractured bones, "of recovery from the most extensive lacerations, involving bony structures, by the fangs of other animals," &c.

But the absurdity of Dr. Cotting's vagary, in substance that God created a class of invisible but malevolent entities of many genera and species designed to pursue and torment and destroy every individual of the human race, as well as every organic being on the face of the earth, is self-evident. These malevolent entities are presumed to be as indestructible as matter and force; and, for this reason, when any one of the species takes possession of an organism, the wise and prudent course of the individual is to quietly acquiesce, and prayerfully expect it to abandon the premises when it finds them too strong to be destroyed. It is vain to seek for causes of diseases with a view to avoid them. He says that "common diseases in ordinary seasons" and "the severer cases of epidemics in all seasons, may never be satisfactorily accounted for by the external surroundings of the victims. After most careful investigations, writers are compelled to admit that there must be some unknown condition, some cause

not understood, other than the poverty, privations, filth, and locality of those attacked." And because writers conjecture that "some unknown condition" is the cause of disease, he asserts that "the simple explanation is to be found in the idea of an original Plan, as we are attempting to demonstrate. With this as the guiding idea, how much more intelligible become such investigations of disease; how much easier the unravelling of the laws which govern organized existence; how much time saved, now lost in a fruitless search for specific causes!"

The author seems to think that because an unknown cause of certain diseases is admitted at this time, the researches of medical philosophy should cease for the reason that their labours must be in vain. Had Dr. Cotting's hypothesis prevailed a century ago scurvy would be now as unavoidable and incurable as it was then; and we should still be ignorant of the influence of vaccination in diminishing the mortality of smallpox, as well as of the mode of extinguishing intermittent from whole districts or regions of country by changing the condition or circumstances of the soil. If we admit disease to be an entity created by the Almighty in the beginning, we must also admit that its destruction by man's efforts would be as futile as an attempt to annihilate matter or force. It would be idle to combat ague with quinia, or itch with sulphur or with any other means. We should be reduced to purely expectant practice, assisted by amulets and charms, the royal touch and prayers.

Dr. Cotting says: "Time was (our own day embraces it) when it was publicly taught, that mercury given to salivation was not only the specific, or antidote, for iritis, but absolutely essential to its successful treatment; now, one of our number has been justly called a public benefactor for showing that such practice is not only unnecessary, but often grievously detrimental in that affection."

Yet, we may suppose, on this notion that disease is a part of the plan of creation, that iritis was included among created entities, in spite of this evidence of improvement in the treatment of a formidable affection. Else how can the author of this improvement be assumed to be a public benefactor. To conjecture that disease is a part of the creation and imply therefore that its cause is inscrutable, is not clearly consistent with the assertion that a physician is a public benefactor who discovers a means of curing or removing it. We concur with Dr. Cotting in his opinion that "False assumptions are dangerous expedients, and the most ignorant will ever be the most likely to practise upon them. Truth is weakened by any addition of error; and the profession that allows it must in the end abandon its own self-respect."

Unless we have grossly misconceived the views of our author, they are erroneous, and, if accepted, calculated to retard rather than assist a rational pursuit of truth. If diseases were included in the original plan of the creation, how are we to explain the appearance of affections which are recognized to be of recent origin by the most learned in the profession? Did cholera exist while Adam was in Eden?

Every organism, whether animal or vegetable, has a finite character, or in other words, is so constructed that it can possess the property of vitality only during a limited period. This possession may be lost without the agency of violence or of disease, unless extreme age be a malady. Hence it is quite fair to conjecture that the perfect equilibrium of the functions of each organism, which constitutes the state of health, may be disturbed, impeded, almost arrested, constituting disease, or entirely stopped, which is death, from the influence of physical forces operating both within and without. Disease is incidental to every organism; it is contingent upon the conditions or circumstances to which it may be exposed, and in this sense only may it be philosophically regarded as a part of the plan of creation. It seems plausible to suppose that each organism was in its contrivance so nicely balanced in all its parts that disorder and death are necessarily incidental to it within the period assigned it to live. There seems to be no more conclusive reasons for conjecturing that fevers and pestilences were special contrivances included in the design of the universe than there is to imagine that the genesis of monsters, which are met with in every genus of organism, or the fracture of bones, the laceration and incision of flesh were originally devised as specific parts in the plan of the creation. Just as

wounds are resultants of the action and reaction of physical forces on organic masses in a mode satisfactorily observed by the senses, so may diseases be resultants of the action and reaction of forces on organic molecules in an unknown manner, varied in accordance with the quantity and tension of the forces and the properties of the matter subjected to action? When molecular motions in all their relations are fully understood, it seems probable that this wonderfully complex problem, the cause or genesis of disease, will be more readily solved than it is now. At any rate, we are not yet prepared to accept the transcendental doctrine that disease is of divine origin, in the sense suggested by Dr. Cotting, and was included as a specific part of the organic world.

W. S. W. R.

ART. XXXIII.—*Researches on the Medical Properties and Applications of Nitrous Oxide, Protoxide of Nitrogen, or Laughing Gas.* By GEO. J. ZIEGLER, M. D., Physician to the Philadelphia Hospital; Member of the Medical Association, Member of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, etc. etc. 12mo. pp. 66. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1865.

MESSRS. J. B. Lippincott & Co. are entitled to credit for the mechanical excellence of this very thin volume, from which we have been enabled to gather very little information about nitrous oxide, but whether this is attributable to any defect in the author's manner of treating the subject or our own want of perception may be a question. He claims for it wonderful powers, but relates no instances or experiments to sustain his assertions. He says, for example, it is "particularly indicated in the various ataxic and adynamic fevers, such as the typhus, typhoid or enteric, congestive, yellow, remittent, intermittent, and all others of a similar type. Nitrous oxide is, moreover, of general application and quite efficient in scarlet fever, measles, diphtheria, variola, constitutional syphilis, erysipelas, gangrene and kindred maladies. It may likewise prove more or less useful in sunstroke, pyæmia, purulent infection, puerperal fever, and necræmic and toxicæmic affections generally, those from septic poisons and the virus of venomous and rabid animals inclusive.

"The stimulant, depurant, and antidotal properties of protoxide of nitrogen also render it peculiarly valuable in the treatment of another variety of toxicosis from the inordinate and continued use of alcohol, tobacco, and opium, as well as those sudden and dangerous states of intoxication from over-doses of the same, and the poisonous effects of belladonna, aconite, hydrocyanic acid, chloroform, carburetted hydrogen, carbonic acid, and perhaps also all others of a like character."

If the author possesses any reliable testimony calculated to prove that the assertions implied in the above sentences, or even to render his conjectures plausible, we beg leave to suggest, he would do well to adduce it when his work shall reach another edition. Credulous as very many members of the profession may be in many respects, they are not prepared to accept any author's unsustained assertion that nitrous oxide is at once the antagonist or antidote of such a variety of different diseases and drugs as are above named.

Speaking "of the *modus operandi* of nitrous oxide in the production of insensibility," he uses the following remarkable language: "As before stated, the ordinary effects of protoxide of nitrogen upon the animal economy are actively and permanently stimulant, accelerating all the vital operations by increasing chemico-organic and bio-dynamic action. Thus while chemically it rapidly arterializes the blood and promotes elemental interchange, molecular activity and organic metamorphosis, dynamically it stimulates the nervous system, sensorium, and general functions of life. But when taken freely the physiological processes are accelerated to such a degree as to temporarily overcome systemic excitability and cause partial interruption of vital activity from overstimulation, the stimulus overbalancing excitability or the momentum being greater than the velocity, on the same principle as without exhaustion a horse may

be 'taken off its feet,' and its pace materially diminished by immoderate driving, the impetus being greater than its capacity for speed. Besides this there may probably be such an abundance of carbonic acid engendered by the energetic oxidation as to check in some measure chemico-organic reaction and dynamization, and thus induce vital inertia and insensibility."

The late Dr. Wm. P. C. Barton published his inaugural "Desertation on the Chymical Properties and Exhilarating Effects of Nitrous Oxide Gas" in the year 1808. We conjecture that the concluding sentences of his work might be quoted as a suitable close of the essay before us. He says: "The human mind delights to rove through the flowery fields of speculation, and scarce can two connected facts present themselves to its observation, than it immediately infers some consequent conclusion. If these are illusions that 'have *cheated* while they *charmed* the dazzled mind,' they have afforded me a pleasure that is not alloyed by a consciousness of their instability and hypothetical nature. If they are the phantoms of a dream that, when I wake, shall be melted into air, I will still dream on, and exclaim with Ferdinand in the Tempest,

"This is a most majestic vision, and
Harmonious charmingly.'"

W. S. W. R.

ART. XXXIV.—*A Manual of the Principles of Surgery, Based on Pathology, for Students.* By WILLIAM CANNIFF, Licentiate of the Med. Board, Upper Canada; M. D. of Univ. New York; M. R. C. S., England; formerly House Surgeon to the Seaman's Hospital, New York; late Professor of General Pathology and the Principles and Practice of Surgery, Univ. Victoria College, Toronto, C. W., etc. etc. etc. 8vo. pp. 402. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blakiston, 1866.

THIS manual is evidently the production of a man who is well informed on his subject, and who moreover has had experience as a teacher and as a practitioner. He has profited by the study of the best authors on the principles of surgery, tested practically their doctrines, and has presented his own views, well arranged and clearly expressed, for the advantage of others.

The subjects treated of are arranged and divided into five divisions, and these into forty-seven chapters. A first chapter treats of nutrition, development, growth, assimilation, the formative process, ordinary decay, repair, and the conditions necessary for repair. The divisions treat of inflammation and the diseases arising out of inflammation; of the healing process and diseases of the healing process; of external injuries, contusions, and wounds; of diseases of certain tissues, bones, joints (including fractures and dislocations), arteries, and veins; and of morbid growths.

We recommend this work, as an excellent treatise, both to persons beginning the study of surgery and to those who have been long engaged in its practice.

W. F. A.

ART. XXXV.—*The Malformations, Diseases, and Injuries of the Fingers and Toes, and their Surgical Treatment.* By THOMAS ANNANDALE, F. R. C. S., Edinburgh Lecturer on Surgery, Assistant Surgeon to the Edinburgh Royal Infirmary. The Jacksonian Prize Essay for the year 1864. 8vo. pp. 292. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1866.

THIS work is a valuable one, both intrinsically and also accidentally, for it is, we believe, the only one treating specially of the same subjects. It is divided into seven chapters, treating respectively of congenital affections, of inflammatory affections, of tumours, of injuries, of non-congenital contractions and dis-

tortions, and of excisions of the bones and joints of the digits, and of their amputations. It is handsomely printed, and illustrated by twelve plates, containing a hundred and twenty-seven figures. W. F. A.

ART. XXXVI.—*A Lecture on Posterior Staphyloma, with special reference to two singular Cases, with a Supplementary Note on Posterior Staphyloma (so called) and Hypermetropia, with Illustrations.* By J. F. STREATFEILD, F. R. C. S., Assistant Surgeon to the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital, and to the Eye Infirmary of University College Hospital, &c. pp. 18, with two coloured plates. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1866.

LITTLE was known of posterior staphyloma before the invention of the ophthalmoscope; it was only after death that this affection could be recognized. In the interesting lecture of Mr. Streatfeild, he clearly points out the appearances revealed by the ophthalmoscope, which characterize this pathological condition, and relates two very interesting cases of the disease.

Mr. S. classifies this affection into stationary and progressive staphylomata.

The elongation of the antero-posterior axis of the eye in this disease occasions myopia, and this usually first induces the patient to seek advice.

In the stationary kind the great characteristic of an ophthalmic examination, as pointed out by our author, is a white crescentic mark touching the optic nerve entrance, and embracing it more or less, and sometimes encircling it altogether.

In the first of the two cases described by Mr. S., its singularity consisted in this—"a posterior staphyloma existed without any connection with the optic nerve entrance. An ordinary posterior staphyloma existed in this eye, the right, but chiefly on the inner side of the optic nerve entrance, away from the extraordinary staphyloma which was quite separate and altogether unconnected with it. This, the ordinary staphyloma, was not therefore in the most usual situation, or rather, as it extended round the whole circumference of the optic nerve entrance, it should be said that the crescent, the widest part of the staphyloma was rather, but not exactly, on the opposite side of the optic nerve entrance to that on which it is usually found. As far as the ordinary staphyloma was concerned, the left eye of the patient was symmetrically affected, but there was no other resemblance between the two eyes, and no initial stage of the extraordinary staphyloma, that could be recognized, in the left eye. The larger and extraordinary staphyloma of the right eye was of about twice the diameter of that encircling the optic nerve entrance. It occupied the region of the yellow spot. It reflected light very brilliantly as from the bottom of a hollow, from one part or another particularly as the light was thrown into it. Its margin was surrounded by irregular streaks of black pigment, some of them being within the margin, as if it had increased in size, and they had been left there. Its margin fell a little out of the circle on the side towards the optic nerve entrance, as if it would be likely to join with the staphyloma in that situation; but there was a broad bridge of perfectly healthy looking choroid, retina, &c., between the two staphylomata. Many of the short ciliary arteries were seen entering the large staphyloma, through the sclerotic, generally in pairs, through little slit-shaped openings common to the two. Some of them seemed to me to go to the sclerotic itself. Their course seemed also to indicate the deep hollow of the staphyloma. They were very fine, and did not seem to have a forward course, but were generally curved into the staphyloma. The choroidal epithelium in the neighbourhood of the large posterior staphyloma was all around it much more distinctly pigmented than elsewhere, and on the inner side of the optic nerve entrance the choroidal vessels could be very distinctly seen."

The ophthalmoscopic appearances of the eyes in this case are exhibited in a coloured plate, as are also those in the second case.

We recommend this lecture to the careful study of ophthalmic surgeons, as containing much information, and as throwing light on an obscure affection.

ART. XXXVII.—Dr. H. SNELLEN. *Test-Types, for the Determination of the Acuteness of Vision.* New edition. 8vo. Printed by P. W. Van de Weijer, Utrecht, 1866.

IN our number for October, 1863, we noticed the first edition of this work, and pointed out its great utility to the ophthalmic surgeon for testing the degree of vision possessed by patients as well as for detecting the various anomalies of that sense.

The present edition is partly rewritten, and has many additions.

The test-types are printed in five different languages, viz.: English, French, Spanish, German, and Dutch; and to test vision in those who cannot read, various figures whose form can be promptly stated are added. Among the latter we find a circle and square, which in our notice we stated to be desirable for the purpose of enabling us the better to detect astigmatism. If to the circle had been attached a movable hand, corresponding to the diameter of that figure, which the patient could move, so as to indicate what appears to him to be the longest diameter of the circle, it would greatly assist the optician in arranging the plano-cylindrical lens for the correction of the defect.

Round dots of a certain diameter are also given; and likewise sets of dots black on white and white on black, variously arranged, for comparative experiments.

The profession are under great obligations to Dr. Snellen for this extremely useful volume, a copy of which should be on the table of every practitioner.

ART. XXXVIII.—*The Restorative Treatment of Pneumonia.* By JOHN HUGHES BENNETT, M.D., F.R.S.E., Professor of the Institutes of Medicine and Senior Professor of Clinical Medicine in the University of Edinburgh, &c. &c. &c. Third edition. 8vo. pp. 110. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black, 1866.

THIS memoir consists essentially of a table which appeared in the fourth edition of the author's "Principles and Practice of Medicine;" of an extension of the statistical facts and conclusions therein referred to; and a reply to the observations which several distinguished physicians have made on various points involved in the inquiry. It has been issued with a view of bringing more prominently and more generally under the notice of the profession the great practical importance of the questions involved in the successful treatment of pneumonia by restoratives, and with the hope that its perusal will persuade hospital physicians and others to assist the author in collecting carefully-taken cases of acute pneumonia, tabulated in the same manner as his own, whereby the advantages of the practice may be either confirmed or negated by experience.

We earnestly urge our readers to aid Professor Bennett by communicating to him the results of their experience, and thus contribute to definitely settling a long disputed and fundamental question in practical medicine.

QUARTERLY SUMMARY

OF THE

IMPROVEMENTS AND DISCOVERIES

IN THE

MEDICAL SCIENCES.

ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY.

1. *Mechanism of Deglutition*.—Dr. KRISHABEN has instituted a number of auto-laryngoscopic experiments for the purpose of ascertaining the mechanism of deglutition, and states (*Comptes Rendus*, July, 1865) that in the act of deglutition the alimentary bolus passes along one of the pharyngeal channels on either side of the epiglottis, which last is raised by the elevation of the larynx; the bolus, consequently, enters the œsophagus at the moment when, by the contraction of the constrictor muscles, the pharynx is diminished in size, and is brought up against the bolus. The deglutition of liquids is effected in the same way, except that these pass pretty frequently over the epiglottis itself, which rarely occurs with solid aliments. A small quantity of fluid, when liquids are drunk, enters the larynx around the margin of the epiglottis and may even creep down to and moisten the vocal cords. In the act of gargling, the larynx is widely open, and a large quantity of fluid passes into the interior of the vocal organ.

It is easy to bear with the presence of an alimentary bolus in the respiratory tract, *i. e.*, in the larynx, even on the vocal cords, and in the interior of the trachea. The sensibility of the trachea to the contact of foreign bodies is infinitely less than that of the larynx. The contact of hard and cold bodies with the mucous membrane of the larynx cannot be tolerated; but the contact of soft and moist bodies, of the same temperature as the body, can be sustained for several minutes without occasioning any cough, or other inconvenience. For the performance of these experiments but little practice is required.—*Brit. and For. Med.-Chir. Rev.*, April, 1866.

2. *Transmission of Impressions through the Spinal Cord*.—Dr. BROWN-SÉQUARD maintains that in man after an injury damaging the whole transverse thickness of a small portion of one lateral half of the cord there may be observed—A. On the same side. 1. Paralysis of voluntary motion. 2. Hyperæsthesia of sense of contact, for pain, and for temperature in the paralyzed part. 3. An anæsthetic zone of small extent, corresponding to the parts supplied by nerves which take their origin from that part of the spinal cord situated immediately below the lesion. 4. Hyperæsthesia, in a greater or less extent of surface, above the zone of diminished sensibility. 5. Absolute or relative elevation of temperature in the paralyzed parts, and often also in those parts of which the sensibility is exalted, but not in the parts which are not paralyzed. 6. Phenomena indicating paralysis of the origins of the great sympathetic nerve in the neck, when the lesion has occurred in the cervico-brachial enlargement. B. On the opposite side. 1. Complete anæsthesia as regards contact, tickling, pain, and temperature, in those parts which correspond to the

ones that are paralyzed on the opposite side. 2. Perfect preservation of the voluntary movements, and of the muscular sense. 3. A zone of exalted sensibility of small extent, and feeble in degree, situated in the parts above those the sensibility of which is diminished.

In animals M. Brown-Séquard has also observed occasionally amaurosis, ulceration of cornea, hypertrophy of supra-renal capsule, epileptic convulsions, and general augmentation of the vital properties of both the muscles and nerves in the hyperæstheticized parts.

From these observations he considers himself justified in drawing the conclusion, that there is an absolutely complete decussation of the conductors of the various kinds of susceptibility, with the exception only of those conveying the muscular sense. Further clinical facts appear to demonstrate—1. That each of the four species of sensibility referred to above, possesses its own proper conductors which are distinct from those of the other kinds. 2. That each of these species of conductors occupies a distinct part of the spinal cord; and, lastly, that at the upper part of the cervical portion of the spinal cord the four species of conductors coming from the abdominal members and a great part of the trunk, form a group placed behind a similar group constituted by those proceeding from the thoracic members. For numerous cases, and much ingenious reasoning in support of these propositions, the reader is referred to the paper itself, which will well repay perusal.—*Ibid.*, from *Journal Physiol.*, Oct. 1863.

3. *Relation existing between the Sense of Temperature, the Sense of Touch, and the Sense of Pain.*—The following interesting case of Dr. A. F. SPRING is almost unique, and affords a strong confirmation of the opinions of those who think the sensations of temperature, pain, and pressure are conveyed through separate channels, or are perceived by separate centres. The patient was a female, aged sixty, who had long suffered from hypertrophy of the heart, dyspnoea, and persistent bronchitis. From exposure to cold she became paralyzed, though without loss of consciousness or deviation of the tongue when that organ was protruded. The entire right half of the body, including the head, became insensible to temperature, and to pain, but there was no loss of motor power; the muscular power, in fact, as measured by the dynamometer, being somewhat increased on the affected side. She could feel the slightest touch on the anæsthesiated (?) side, and, when the eyes were closed, she could discover and pick up a pin from the floor. On washing the hands she could distinctly perceive the shock and movement of the water flowing over them, but was quite unable to distinguish whether it was hot or cold. In winter she could only perceive the temperature with the left half of the body, and the same when standing near a fire. The normal temperature of the skin on the affected side was maintained in every part, or differed only to the extent of 1° or 2° . Neither the pricks of needles nor strong pinching was perceived in the slightest degree. She suffered from neuralgia in the temporal region at night. In consultation with M. Schwann, the author ascertained that there was no diminution in the acuteness of the patient's perception in regard to impressions of weight and of contact. The hand lying prone on a table, and weighted with 500 grammes, readily distinguished the addition or removal of two or three grammes, and when weights were concealed in a cloth, and the amount estimated alternately by the two arms, no difference was remarked. From experiments made in the method suggested by Weber for determining the delicacy of touch by applying the points of compasses, it appeared that there was a considerable diminution of acuteness on the left, or healthy side, but a still more marked diminution on the right side. On the eighth day after this consultation the sensibility to pain returned, under the form of a painful formication, and from this time every object appeared *hot* to the patient, so that she was unable to distinguish ice from water at a temperature of 122° . This state lasted two months, when death occurred from an attack of apoplexy.

In this case the sense of variation of temperature, instead of being associated with tactile sensations, followed the same course as the sensations of pain, disappearing and reappearing, though modified with the latter. The muscular

sense was intact, and the sense of touch was only deteriorated in regard to its perception of distance. The cause of these abnormal conditions was evidently seated in the nervous centres.—*Ibid.*, from *Presse Medicale*, 1864, No. 34.

MATERIA MEDICA AND PHARMACY.

4. *Local Anæsthesia in a Case of Cæsarean Section, Ovariectomy, &c.*—Dr. B. W. RICHARDSON relates (*Med. Times and Gaz.*, April 7, 1866) a case of Cæsarean section performed by Dr. Greenhalgh in which local anæsthesia was employed by Dr. R.'s method.

In this case Dr. R. states "local anæsthesia by the ether spray process offered everything that could be desired, and I think was in every sense preferable to general anæsthesia from chloroform or ether. Indeed, Dr. Greenhalgh's foresight in respect to these advantages is not less conspicuous than the skill and precision with which he performed the operation. I say this, not in any way to disparage chloroform in cases where it is really demanded, but as a matter of fact and experience. The advantages of the local method were these:—

"1. The operation was painless: the pain that was felt was the pain of labour, and that in the lightest and shortest degree.

"2. The patient, prior to operation, was disposed to vomit. Under chloroform she would almost certainly have vomited during the operation; the intestines would thus have been brought into the wound, and the operation would have been prolonged and made more serious. There might also have been after-vomiting. The tendency of the local anæsthesia was to check vomiting.

"3. The action of the cold checked hemorrhage. I do not think three ounces of blood were lost.

"4. The action of the cold in producing uterine contraction was in every sense beneficial.

"5. The patient was not subjected to shock. I have often, even in deep sleep from chloroform, seen symptoms of shock as the knife entered the flesh, and have felt the heart stop as sharply as though a blow had been inflicted on it. By the local anæsthesia the patient, in her full natural power, was subjected to no kind of cardiac embarrassment.

"6. The consciousness of the patient was an advantage to the operator. She never was restless, she never moved her body for a moment, and when she was once asked not to bear down with the diaphragm, she obeyed immediately.

"7. During the operation there was not the remotest anxiety that the patient would die from anæsthesia."

This process has also proved successful in ovariectomy. Mr. Spencer Wells operated on a woman who had an ovarian tumour so large that the heart and liver were pushed up to a level with the nipples, and the uterus (with the inverted vagina and part of bladder and rectum) down between her thighs. Thinking that chloroform might be dangerous in this state of heart and lungs, Mr. Wells rendered the integument insensible by the ether spray before making his first incision. Not the slightest pain was felt. A very large cyst was tapped and emptied. Some extensive adhesions then required to be separated, and a little chloroform was given, the operation being completed under its influence. If there had been no adhesion, the local anæsthesia would have been quite sufficient to render this great operation painless.

5. *Local Anæsthesia.*—Dr. L. W. SEDGWICK, who has witnessed most of Dr. Richardson's experiments with his new mode of producing local anæsthesia (see last number of this Journal, p. 512) gives (*Lancet*, April 14, 1866), the following comments:—

"When the spray is directed to any part at the proper distance, an inch and a half, much cold is felt, and, at the period of blanching, some prickling, which in some sensitive persons amounts even to a sharp pain. The more rapidly

whiteness is produced, the less unpleasant sensation there is; and if, from the impurity of the ether or any other cause, this symptom is delayed, much dull aching is felt. The tissues, when frozen, are hardish and cut brawniily. When the spray is removed they quickly, and in most cases painlessly, regain life. There is no sloughing, only a little redness, and very occasionally some œdematous swelling and prickling, remaining for a longer or shorter period. This rapidity of return to a normal state, as well as the rapidity of the freezing process, is clearly the great reason why there is no sloughing following this mode of producing local anæsthesia by cold. An instructive example of the great advantage this mode possesses over the ice process was shown in one of my experiments. I was trying if the interposition of a thin metallic plate would diminish the slight smarting felt often on the occurrence of the blanching. I used a leaf of tinfoil, laid dry on the arm at first, and then one gummed to it; and, not having sufficiently dried the latter, I found a layer of ice close to my skin. The redness resulting from the freezing through dry tinfoil passed off, as is usual, in a few hours; but the redness, pain, and swelling produced by the ice lasted, and troubled me for several days.

"After these general observations, I will now shortly summarize the results obtained in practice, and direct attention to some of the conclusions to be gathered from them; and for this purpose I am not only able to draw upon published cases and my own experience, but have also been kindly allowed to use Dr. Richardson's extensive observations.

"The most important operation yet performed has been ovariectomy, by Mr. Spencer Wells. Here the skin incision and the application of the clamp were painless, but the separation of adhesions was somewhat painful, as the spray was not applied fully to them. This is a most encouraging result: the most painful part of the operation, the skin incision, is fully under control; and further experience only can determine whether it is safe to freeze adhesions to important structures such as the diaphragm, liver, or intestines.

"Three cases of removal of the breast have occurred, of which two were quite successful, the other not so; but in this case, which happened to Dr. Richardson, a mechanical deficiency in the spray-producer and the great vascularity of structures combined to overpower the cold produced.

"Three cases of fistula have been operated on without pain; and one was painful, but only in those parts where the spray had not been applied. In a case of division of the sphincter ani and one of removal of a polypus of the rectum, perfect insensibility was produced; but in a second case of division of the sphincter the result was not satisfactory.

"Fatty tumours have been removed from over the false ribs and the shoulder, a doubtful scirrhus from the sole of the foot, and six sebaceous tumours from the face and head, without any pain.

"Three cases of amputation of the finger have been painless, and one somewhat painful. Supernumerary parts have been three times cut off from the digits with success. Three toenails have been removed. A carbuncle has been freely incised, and nitric acid twice applied to very sensitive parts with comfort. The operation for phimosis has not given pain, and ten deep abscesses and two whitlows have been cut into when frozen without the knowledge of the patient. One of the whitlows was in its early stage, very red, tense, and acutely painful; an incision of an inch long was made, and the next day it was almost well. Two cases of operations on the skin have been most successful, and several deep sinuses have been opened without pain; in one case in which I applied the spray there was some unpleasant sensation from the structures not being sufficiently frozen. A case of excision of the eyeball by Mr. Ernest Hart has been reported, where the pain was to a great extent alleviated. And lastly, some two hundred teeth have been extracted without pain in by far the larger number. In one case Dr. Richardson produced a most satisfactory degree of numbness in the removal of a wisdom tooth by freezing the adjoining structures from the outside.

"Considering that these details include the earliest operations, the results must be considered most satisfactory; and from the progress that has already been made, it cannot be doubted that as a wider knowledge of the details of the process and a further experience of its application are gained, the cases of non-

success will be greatly diminished, and perhaps a new fluid acting more quickly may reduce or prevent altogether the unpleasant, and in some persons sharply painful, sensation produced during blanching. I have not seen or heard of any material interference with the healing process, except in one case where some sloughing occurred; but as the wound had to be opened the next day to stop bleeding, it is at least doubtful to what cause the mischief was due.

"But medicine gains as well as surgery. One case of lumbago, and one of rheumatism of the shoulder, have been instantly relieved by this process; and four cases of neuralgia have been for the present cured. Even whilst writing this, I have applied the spray to the forehead in a case of neuralgic headache, and to the sacral region for a similar pain there, with marked advantage. Hence, without in the least degree claiming for the process the character of a universal panacea for superficial pain, I look with hope to the prospect of wide use in many troublesome disorders which, to cover our ignorance, we call neuralgic; and also in such brain affections, especially in children, where rapid and extreme cold is desired.

"But I will refrain from speculations, and briefly mention a few suggestions which lie on the surface of the question. If the operation is not very superficial, the part should be well frozen, and it should be white for a minute or more before any incision is made. The surgeon should cut slowly, and the spray should be kept going immediately before the knife. He should remember the difference between frozen and normal parts, and work accordingly. And, lastly, if the operation be lengthened, cold water should be used to delay slightly the recovery.

"The more one sees of Dr. Richardson's most important discovery, the more one learns the necessity of attention to such minutiae as the perfectness of the tubes, the purity of the ether, and the accommodation to differing circumstances; and the more one feels that the invention contains within it the power of a yet larger growth, and that its author deserves the lasting gratitude of the profession and those whose miseries we try to alleviate.

"P.S. Since the above was written, I have had the gratification of seeing the complete success of ether spray in Dr. Greenhalgh's important operation of Cæsarean section. Many other operations have been painlessly done, and I have used it with marked success in a case of spinal hyperæsthesia, and one of lumbago. On the other hand, some failures are said to have happened, some of which have been clearly attributable to the imperfection of the apparatus employed, and others, it may be, to the unfitness of the cases for the use of narcotism by cold. Widely applicable as this mode of producing painlessness is, it needs, as usual, two conditions for its success: a perfectness of the mechanism employed and a fit selection of cases."

6. *Antagonism of Chloroform and Ether.*—Dr. GREENHALGH stated at the meeting of the Obstetrical Society of London (Feb. 7, 1866), that some time since he had requested Dr. Sansom to administer chloroform to a lady during the removal of a large polypus from the uterus. She was extremely anæmic and feeble, from large and frequent losses of blood occurring over a period of two years and a half. She had a damaged heart, and a profuse sanious and offensive discharge from the vagina. Shortly after the administration of the chloroform, and before complete anæsthesia was induced, her pulse began to falter, her breathing became embarrassed, and her countenance livid. Dr. Sansom, without delaying the inhalation, substituted ether with the best results. Dr. Greenhalgh begged to ask that gentleman if he had adopted a similar practice in other cases with good effects; and if so, whether he considered that the vapour of ether could be regarded as an antidote to the evil consequences of chloroform, and whether he could offer any physiological explanation of how such beneficial effects are brought about.

Dr. Sansom replied that it was his constant practice to administer ether if in any case chloroform seemed to produce a depressing effect. Indeed usually, in prolonged operations, he thus maintained the anæsthesia. The substitution, or rather addition, was never attended by any return of sensation. He always found that the plan answered admirably: it certainly restored the force of the

circulation. It was perhaps premature to explain the *rationale* of the procedure; but he would remark on the singular circumstance that whereas chloroform tended to empty the blood-corpuscles, ether tended to distend them—chloroform reddened the blood, and ether darkened it. There thus existed, as it were, a natural antagonism amongst agents of the anæsthetic class. Again, they influenced differently the sympathetic system. Ether would cause contraction of the heart and arteries even during the period of the influence of chloroform, and the bichloride of carbon did the same in a marked degree.—*Med. Times and Gaz.*, March 24, 1866.

7. *Anæsthetic Properties of the Bichloride of Carbon.*—Dr. SANSOM, in a paper read before the Obstetrical Society of London (Feb. 7, 1866), expressed the opinion that this new anæsthetic would be of great value to the practitioners of obstetrics. Very much as to its constitution and properties had yet to be determined, and more could not be attempted at present than the presenting to the Society a few scattered hints and observations. Dr. Sansom claimed to be the first to describe this body as an anæsthetic in his book on Chloroform, published in May, 1865. It was then called tetrachloride of carbon; it has since been determined to be a bichloride, and Sir James Simpson has suggested for it the convenient term chlorocarbon. The fluid possesses many of the characteristics of chloroform; its odour, however, is more pleasant and less pungent; its density is slightly greater, and its volatility less. It takes a longer time to induce anæsthesia. On the fourth of July, 1864, the author, in conjunction with Dr. John Harley, tried the effect of the inhalation of the new anæsthetic upon a frog. The circulation in the web of the foot was observed by the microscope throughout the process. It was seen to cause a considerable amount of irregular muscular action, and a very decided contraction of the capillary arteries. A state of torpor was then induced for three-quarters of an hour, but reflex action was not wholly abolished. Experiments were made upon dogs and guinea-pigs. In these there was considerable muscular agitation at the outset. Deep anæsthesia was slowly produced, but, once induced, continued very profound until death. The post-mortem signs were, complete collapse of the lungs and distension of the right side of the heart, so that the organ assumed a globular form. The sensations produced by the inhalation of the bichloride of carbon are at first very agreeable: there is a pleasant sensation of warmth, and, as the author thought, a freedom from the vertigo such as is produced by chloroform. Dr. Sansom has employed it in cases of midwifery. It was readily inhaled: it mitigated the pains, and in one case almost completely abolished them; it did not interfere with consciousness. In reviewing the relative merits of the two anæsthetics, the author considered (1) that chlorocarbon has the advantage over chloroform in its being inhaled with greater comfort; it is not susceptible of decomposition with the formation of deleterious chlorine compounds; and its cost will probably be considerably less. Being much less volatile, than chloroform, it will probably be best administered by pouring it upon a sponge wrung out in hot water. (2) It is, during its early stage of action, a powerful stimulant to the circulatory system. It will probably be especially valuable in midwifery, for it abolishes pain without affecting consciousness, and its tendency is certainly to increase muscular action. (3) It is not advisable to induce deep narcotism by means of this agent. Its profound effects are very persistent, and it is eliminated from the system slowly.—*Med. Times and Gaz.*, March 24th, 1866.

8. *Hæmostatic Ethers.*—Dr. B. W. RICHARDSON has invented some hæmostatic ethers which may prove very useful in practice. By the ether spray he was struck with the effect of the cold in immediately stopping the flow of the blood, but he observed that when reaction returns the bleeding recurs, which, if the wound be closed too quickly, will be the cause of after trouble; hence he was led to believe that if the effects of the cold could be supplemented by a styptic which would spray evenly with ether the constringing action would be rendered more perfect. With this view, he requested Mr. Robins to make for him a solution consisting of absolute ether, having a boiling point of 92°

Fah., charged to saturation at a low temperature with tannin, and afterwards treated with xyloidine a little short of saturation. This compound runs easily through the spray tube without blocking, produces good local anæsthesia, and possesses an agreeable odour. Dr. R. names this *Xylo-Styptic Ether Spray*. "When this spray," Dr. Richardson states, "is directed on an open bleeding living surface, the primary effects are those produced by the cold—namely, the condensation and whitening of the tissues. If blood be flowing, it solidifies, and when the parts relax, new blood that may ooze up enters the solid blood as though it were a sponge, quickly solidifying by coagulation and stopping further flow.

"The applicability of this process for the arrest of hemorrhage will occur to the mind of every practitioner. The substances used in the compound are innocuous, and the combined influence of the cold and the styptic are immediate, and so decisive that I can scarcely imagine any hemorrhage they would not control. I have not had an opportunity of testing the point, but I have no doubt from the influence of the styptic on the decomposing albumen of defibrinated blood that even in those cases of hemorrhage where the blood is preternaturally fluid, the styptic spray would arrest the hemorrhage entirely. Where the blood contains fibrin in a natural condition, I cannot imagine a case in which the fluid would not prevent exudation.

"The essential elements of this process are three in number :—

"1. The immediate constringent effects of cold on the bloodvessels.

"2. The chemical action of the solution on the fibrin and albumen of the blood.

"The extreme mechanical fineness of distribution of the fluid on the bleeding surface.

"The styptic ether cannot only be applied to open wounds on the skin, but to hemorrhage after the extraction of teeth, and, by means of a uterine tube, to hemorrhage arising from cancerous disease of the uterus or other cause. It might also be applied to the rectum in cases of hemorrhage from piles.

"The apparatus required for this styptic ether is mechanically the same as for ordinary ether—that is to say, my spray tube with Dr. Clarke's hand bellows. The tube, however, requires to be made of different metal from that ordinarily in use for local anæsthesia; and I have therefore instructed Messrs. Krohne and Sesemann to construct a special tube for the purpose."

"This styptic ether," Dr. R. says, "will keep ready for use any length of time, as there is nothing in it to undergo decomposition; and, as very small quantities of it are required, it will become, I trust, of standard service to the medical practitioner. It would be of great use also to surgeons on board ship, and particularly to army surgeons. In case of warfare it would be exceeding useful on the battle-field, as, under the instruction of the surgeon, it could be used by an orderly, so as to prevent hemorrhage instantaneously in the case of flesh wounds. It would also form a useful addition to the medical cabinet of travellers, who by necessity are removed from the direct succour afforded by medical art."

Dr. R. has also tried experiments with solutions of salts of iron in ether, but he has not found them more effective than the preceding preparation, and they rapidly destroy the tube. Dr. R. has also invented some other ether compounds, of which he promises an account hereafter.—*Med. Times and Gaz.*, April 28, 1866.

9. *Iodized Cotton*.—Dr. ROBERT GREENHALGH gives (*Lancet*, May 26th) the following as the mode of preparing this article :—

"Two ounces of iodide of potassium and one ounce of iodine are dissolved in eight ounces of glycerine, in which solution eight ounces of cotton wool are thoroughly saturated and then carefully dried. The best method of applying it is to take a portion of the iodized cotton about the size of a half-crown piece secured by some silk thread tied crosswise, and, passing it through a speculum, to press it firmly against the cervix uteri, over which a piece of cotton wool similarly secured, somewhat larger, and freely saturated in glycerine, should be placed and retained *in situ* while the speculum is being withdrawn. It may be

applied twice or three times a week, and be kept in the upper part of the vagina from twenty-four to forty-eight hours."

Dr. G. states that the cases in which he has found this application most useful are, subinvolution with or without congestion or induration of tissue; in cases of chronic inflammatory enlargements and thickenings of the cervix uteri; in one case of pruritus, apparently due to acrid secretion passing through the os uteri; in two cases of fibroid disease of the anterior lip of the uterus; in chronic pelvic cellulitis; in hamatocele; and in one case of epithelial cancer of the neck of the uterus.

It possesses the following advantages: It is clean, light, and portable; it produces no irritation; destroys all fetor; is considerably stronger than the compound tincture of iodine, is more readily absorbed, and can be kept in contact with the diseased tissues for a longer period. Moreover, it does not soil the linen like the medicated pessaries and suppositories and many other topical applications in general use for uterine affections.

10. *Chlorate of Quinia*.—From the powerful oxidizing and general stimulating agency of chloric acid, and the influence of quinia as a nervine-tonic, Dr. LYONS has been led to the idea of combining these two remedial agents with the view of obtaining a febrifuge medicine of great potency. Each atom of the chlorate will provide, it may be expected, five available atoms of oxygen from the chloric acid, chl. O₃, while in the perchloric acid, each atom contains seven of oxygen, chl. O₇.

From some half-dozen cases in which he has as yet employed this drug, including scarlatina, typhus, the diphtheritic case above mentioned, and low forms of pneumonia, Dr. Lyons has obtained results which so far satisfy him of its efficiency and utility, and he invites the co-operation of his professional brethren in testing the value of this salt of quinia in low pyrexial states.—*Dublin Med. Press and Circular*, May 30, 1866.

11. *Action of Medicinal Preparations of Iron on the Teeth*.—Dr. JOHN SMITH, with a view of ascertaining how far the popular belief that the preparations of iron in medicinal use exert an injurious influence on the teeth, instituted a number of experiments.

"Eight of the compounds of iron in most general use as remedial agents, and along with them one or two other non-ferruginous compounds, sometimes suspected of injuring the teeth, were selected, and in solutions of these compounds the same *number* and the same *kinds* of human teeth were immersed. In each of the separate solutions four teeth were placed; and in all cases these four teeth consisted of a sound canine and bicuspid, and a decayed upper and lower molar. * * *

"On examining the respective solutions after twenty-four hours, the teeth were found unaltered in those of the carbonate and saccharine carbonate of iron, the phosphate of iron, the iodide of iron, the citrate of quinine and iron, and in that of the sulphate of quinine. In the solution of the vinum ferri, the liquid itself was somewhat turbid, the teeth, however, seeming to be untouched. In that of the muriate of iron, a turbid sediment filled the bottom of the bottle, and covered up the teeth from view; the fangs of the teeth were somewhat soft and flexible, and the enamel easily scraped down. The sediment under the microscope presented an amorphous granular appearance. In that of the phosphoric acid they seemed somewhat flexible at their more slender parts, such as the points of the fangs; and the enamel looked opaque and chalky, but did not feel crumbling or soft. In the solution of Condyl's fluid they were deeply stained, but in no way altered in texture.

"The teeth in the different solutions were allowed to remain ten days longer, and on examining them at the end of that period neither those in carbonate or saccharine carbonate of iron, the phosphate of iron, the iodide of iron, nor the citrate of iron and quinine, presented any further change, except that those in the saccharine carbonate were slightly blackened, the discoloration, however, being superficial, and nearly all removable by brushing. A ropy sediment adhered to those in the sulphate of quinine, and perhaps a very slight softening

of the surface of the fang might be present. The ropy sediment presented, under the microscope, the appearance of a mass of acicular crystals of various sizes, interspersed with threads or fibres of some kinds.

"In the solutions of the vinum ferri, the sulphate of iron, the muriate of iron, the phosphoric acid, and of Cond's fluid, certain changes were observable. In the vinum ferri the cloudy precipitate was somewhat increased, and the teeth were dark and discoloured, especially in the fangs, but otherwise uninjured. In the sulphate of iron solution a very copious precipitate had formed. The teeth were not softened throughout their whole thickness, but had a layer of soft substance covering in what of the enamel and dentine remained hard beneath. They were also considerably discoloured. In the solution of the muriate of iron, a large deposit of the cloudy precipitate had accumulated, and in this the teeth lay buried. Their fangs were very soft, and quite flexible, and the enamel was wasted away, and on being touched crumbled down like chalk. In those, again, immersed in the phosphoric acid solution the fangs were quite flexible, and were diminished in bulk; the enamel could be deeply scratched with any blunt instrument, and felt like Derbyshire spar. It was more wasted, but not so soft as that of the teeth in the muriate of iron solution. Notwithstanding this loss of salts of lime, on drying by exposure to the air these teeth have again become hard and unyielding. In the Cond's solution, the teeth were covered by a very dark incrustation, which, however, could be nearly all removed by brushing, or still more effectually by applying dilute muriatic acid; otherwise they were uninjured. The solution itself had become almost colourless.

"From these facts it would appear that certain preparations of iron, when directly applied, do exercise a powerful effect on the substance of the teeth. And the ratio of the effects obtained would seem to prove, that of all the preparations employed in these experiments that of the tincture of the muriate of iron acts most powerfully, the sulphate of iron next, and next to that again, although in comparison very immaterially, the vinum ferri, the other preparations of iron appearing to be inert.

"Of the other substances experimented with, phosphoric acid seems the only one producing injurious effects on the teeth, which it does, however, to a very marked extent."—*Edinburgh Med. Journ.*, Jan. 1866.

MEDICAL PATHOLOGY AND THERAPEUTICS, AND PRACTICAL MEDICINE.

12. *Acute Uncomplicated Myocarditis in which the Disease was Diagnosed During Life.*—This case was communicated to the Royal Medical and Chirurgical Society, by Dr. C. B. RADCLIFFE. It is an example of a grave affection, of which there is little, if any certain knowledge—acute uncomplicated myocarditis—or, in other words acute inflammation of the muscular structure of the heart, without any inflammation of the endocardium or pericardium. The patient was a fine, stout, strong, married man, middle aged, a varnish maker by occupation. For six weeks he had had occasional attacks of sharp pain at the pit of the stomach, and shooting thence into the left arm—attacks evidently of the nature of angina pectoris. In other respects he thought himself well in health, and he was well enough to follow his daily work, and to get about with little or no discomfort up to the day before his death. When seen for the first time (July 27, 1865), the indications of the disorder evidently pointed to a very weak heart. The pulse was extremely feeble, and somewhat slow, but not irregular. The hands were cold and clammy—remarkably so. The first sound of the heart was absent. The cardiac impulse against the walls of the chest could not be felt. The second sound of the heart could be heard; but faintly only, and several times (in an examination extending over several minutes) it was distinctly reduplicated. There were no morbid sounds of any kind whatever. In the attempt to detect the cardiac impulse the patient winced more

than once, and complained of feeling sore and tender at the part. There was no arcus senilis; the arteries were to all appearance free from atheromatous deposits, and, in short, the only indications of physical disorder were those which have been mentioned. The first attack of pain happened at a time of sudden and severe mental trouble. Previous to this the health had been in all respects excellent. The patient was seen for the second time on the following day, and then he was dying. He was sitting awkwardly on the edge of a chair by the side of the bed, supported by his wife. On suggesting that his posture was a very uncomfortable one, he gasped out, "I must keep as I am—I dare not stir." He had been in this position for ten or twelve hours, literally without moving in the least. His face was pale and ghastly; large beads of sweat stood out on the forehead and went trickling down the face; his extremities, upper and lower, were clammy, and corpse-like as to paleness and coldness. The pulse at the wrist had failed altogether. His breathing was short, shallow, and gasping, and with it was a rattle of which the significance could not be mistaken. His mind was clear and collected; he complained of sickness, and said he knew that he was dying. The history given of this sudden change was this—that he got out of bed to pass urine in the middle of the night, after several hours' quiet sleep; and that while up for this purpose the pain at the pit of the stomach returned in an unusually severe form, with cold perspirations, and with a feeling of deadly faintness. For the next four hours this pain continued without intermission, even without alleviation, and then it ceased suddenly, and the condition as suddenly changed to that which has been described. The post-mortem examination was made by Dr. Willis and Dr. Bazire twenty-four hours after death. In the cavity of the pericardium were nearly two ounces of serum, reddened by blood, but having no flakes of lymph in suspension. The pericardium itself presented no traces of inflammation, old or new; its visceral layer was intensely injected with ramifying capillaries filled with dark blood, but without ecchymoses, and elsewhere it was of the natural colour and character. The heart was dilated and flabby. The muscular structure of both ventricles, and in a lesser degree of both auricles also, was soft and friable, of a mulberry-juice colour, almost black in fact, contrasting in this respect in a very marked manner with the natural redness of the muscles of the chest walls. It broke down readily under the finger like hepatized lung. As seen with the naked eye, it did not appear to be fatty, but there were considerable deposits of fat about the exterior of the heart. The endocardium and all the valves were quite healthy, and so also was the aorta. The left ventricle contained some loose very dark clots of semi-coagulated blood; and in the right ventricle were some fibrinous, but not decolorized, clots adherent to the walls. Upon lifting up the heart by a portion of the right ventricle, the muscular structure broke down and tore like wet paper by the weight of the heart itself. Unfortunately, no microscopic examination was practicable. The grounds upon which the diagnosis was made were in the main these: The history of the disease seemed to point to acute rather than to chronic disease, to begin suddenly in a way which suggested the idea of a "broken heart." There was no sufficient reason to suspect pericarditis or endocarditis, for there were none of the morbid sounds which mark the presence of these inflammations. So far seemed plain enough. It seemed, moreover, that the main symptoms were easily explainable on the supposition that the muscular structure of the heart had been attacked by inflammation. Inflammation of the muscular structure of the heart, as a matter of course, would weaken the muscular powers of the structure, and this weakening would account for that failure in the action of the heart which was the most prominent symptom. Moreover, the same weakening would carry along with it, if sufficient in degree, absence of the first cardiac sound, and absence likewise of the usual cardiac impulse. Nay, it seemed as if the symptoms present—sudden failure in the action of the heart, with loss of its first sound and of the impulse at the apex, with some tenderness on pressure in the intercostal spaces in the cardiac region, with some pain, but without the severe pain of pericarditis, without the morbid sounds of pericarditis or endocarditis, and without arcus senilis atheromatous vessels or other signs, good or bad, to point to common fatty heart—were all the symptoms and signs one had a right to expect in

inflammation of the muscular structure of the heart. At any rate, it was on these grounds, be they sufficient or insufficient, that the diagnosis was made; and it was this diagnosis which led to the post-mortem examination, for if it had not been so, the body—such was the opposition of the friends—would have gone to the grave unexamined.—*Med. Times and Gaz.*, Feb. 3, 1866.

13. *Fatty Liver in Children.*—In the post-mortem examinations of 222 children affected with adipose infiltration or with fatty degeneration of the liver, Drs. STEINER and NEUREUTTER found that in 131 the age was from one to four years. Among the pathological conditions in the course of which fatty liver appears, the most frequent is tuberculosis; and the fact that this state in children is most frequently manifested as disease of the lymphatic glands and not of the lungs, negatives the supposition that the excessive deposit of fatty matter in the liver in connection with tuberculosis is due to deficient oxidation of hydrocarbons. Drs. Steiner and Neureutter consider rather—and in this they agree to some extent with Frerichs—that the origin of fatty liver is to be sought rather in the change in the constitution of the blood induced by the tuberculous disease, and that the liver may be fatty from the commencement of the tuberculous process. Next in order to tuberculosis in connection with fatty liver, is enteritis; which is not, however, to be regarded always as a cause. It may be preceded by the fatty disease; or, in many cases, the two diseases are very probably due to a common cause. The exanthemata may also be followed by fatty liver; and the connection between these is only to be found in the changes of blood. Fatty liver is also observed in connection with diseases of the bones in children, such as tuberculous caries and rickets. It is an error to ascribe the condition of the liver to the use of cod-liver oil in such cases; inasmuch as it is met with in children who have never taken oil, in as advanced a state as in those who have used oil for a year. Cases also of bronchitis, pneumonia, pleuropneumonia, and heart disease, sometimes occur in which fatty deposit in the liver is met with. Of the causes indirectly affecting the liver, diet holds a principal place; inasmuch as the children have either a diet very rich in fat, or (especially among the poor) one deficient in fat but rich in hydrocarbons; and the mischievous influence of this diet is increased by the deficient metamorphoses resulting from want of exercise and from impure air. The authors draw a distinction between adipose infiltration and true fatty degeneration; and observes that the former condition appears to be more frequent in children than the latter, inasmuch as it was met with in 188 cases out of the 222 examined. They hence conclude, that in by far the greater number of cases fatty liver is not to be regarded as a result of malnutrition of the hepatic cells, but as the result of causes acting from without.—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, Feb. 10, 1866, from *Wiener Medizin. Wochenschr.*, Dec. 6, 1865.

14. *Inoculability of Tuberculosis.*—M. VILLEMIN says that tuberculosis is the effect of a specific cause, a virus; which, like its congeners, may be propagated in the morbid products to the formation of which it leads by its direct action on the normal elements of the affected tissues. M. Villemin states further that he has established by experiment the fact that this virus, when introduced into a susceptible body, may reproduce itself, and at the same time reproduce the disease of which it is the essential principle.

On March 6, M. Villemin placed two young rabbits, about three weeks old, in a cage; and inserted behind the ear of one of them two small fragments of tubercle and some puriform fluid taken from a cavern in a man who had died of phthisis thirty-three hours previously. On March 30 and April 4, tubercle was again inoculated. At each operation, local symptoms were produced. On June 20, both rabbits were killed. In the animal which had been inoculated, tubercle was found scattered along the greater curvature of the stomach; there were also tuberculous deposits in the small intestine and in the kidneys; and the lungs were full of large tuberculous masses. The other rabbits, which had not been inoculated, but had in other respects been subjected to the same conditions, presented no signs of tubercle.

On July 15, three healthy rabbits, living in an airy situation and supplied with

abundant and varied food, were inoculated with tubercle. The operation was repeated on them on July 22, and at the same time another healthy rabbit, living with the others in the same conditions, was inoculated. In the middle of September, the animals were killed. In one, there were abundant patches of tubercle of the size of a lentil, projecting on the surface of the lungs; and some miliary granulations. In a second and third, there were similar appearances; and one animal had yellowish-white tubercles in the ileo-cæcal appendix. In the fourth rabbit (the last which had been inoculated) there were, chiefly in the left lung, tubercular deposits of the size of a pea, projecting on the surface. There was also a large number of granulations surrounded by a reddish areola of congestion; several tubercles were in the peritoneal covering of the liver and in the upper portion of the small intestine. While these experiments were being carried on, two other rabbits living in precisely the same conditions as those which were inoculated, were killed for other purposes, and presented no trace of tubercle. A third rabbit, whose sciatic nerve was divided on July 14, was killed on November 21. There had been prolonged suppuration, with swelling of the tibio-tarsal joint with caries of the os calcis; and the animal had become extremely thin; but there was no tubercle.

In a third series of experiments, commenced on October 2, M. Villemin procured three pairs of rabbits about three months old. Each pair was from the same litter, and from a separate mother. One animal of each pair was inoculated, and each pair was placed in a compartment of a cage. A large vigorous adult rabbit was also inoculated. On November 23, the inoculated rabbit of one pair was found dead. The posterior part of both lungs was congested; and in the congested tissue, principally under the pleura, were very small grayish granulations. The cortical substance of the kidneys contained a large number of cysts filled with transparent fluid. In the other two pairs, killed on November 29, the inoculated rabbits both presented tubercles beneath the pleura; the three rabbits which had not been inoculated presented no trace of tubercle. In the large adult rabbit, both lungs were covered with subpleural granulations, the smallest of which were surrounded by areolæ of congestion. There were two or three tubercles projecting on the surface; and the tissue of the lungs contained granulations. Tubercle was also found on the surface and in the tissue of the spleen.

From these experiments, M. Villemin arrives at the following conclusions: 1. Tuberculosis is a specific disease. 2. Its cause lies in an inoculable agent. 3. Tubercle is readily inoculable from man to the rabbit. 4. Tuberculosis belongs to the class of toxæmic diseases.—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, March 17, 1866, from *Gazette Médicale de Paris*, December 16, 1865.

M. Hérard has repeated the experiments of M. Villemin, and confirms the statement that tubercle may be inoculated from man into the rabbit.

15. *Sympathy between the Ear and Larynx*.—Dr. C. Fox draws attention to the sympathy existing between the auditory canal and the larynx. He sums up a very elaborate paper as follows:—

"1. The sympathy between the ear and the larynx, as well as the stomach, has been long known, although the majority of recent writers seem to have overlooked it.

"2. This sympathy is not manifested in every individual, but in about seventeen per cent., and seems to depend on a state of hyperæsthesia of the nerve which supplies the auditory canal.

"3. The nerve of the ear concerned in the production of this phenomenon cannot be a branch of the vagus, as Romberg and Toynbee have affirmed, but is in all probability a branch of the fifth cranial nerve.

"4. This sympathy is an example of a reflected or sympathetic sensation, in which the connection between the nerves concerned takes place in the nervous centre.

"5. Cases occasionally occur where a cough is solely dependent on the existence of some source of irritation in the auditory canal.

"6. The explanation of the sympathy between the ear and the larynx enables

us to understand the mode in which pain of the ear becomes occasionally a symptom of a thoracic aneurism.

"One of my chief objects in bringing before the notice of my professional brethren this sympathetic connection is to introduce to them what may be called an *ear-cough*, and to strongly advise them to examine the auditory canals in all cases of obstinate cough, where none of the more frequent causes of this symptom can be discovered."

16. *Cruveilhier's Paralysis*.—Dr. FLEMING brought under notice of the Surgical Society of Ireland (April 20th, 1866), a man affected with this disease. He thought it would be admitted that this was a case showing in a very marked manner that peculiar class of muscular atrophy, which was comparatively rare, as the result of injury. This poor man was a sailor from the age of twelve years. In the year 1864, when engaged on board ship and employed aloft, he by some means lost his hold and fell down some sixteen or eighteen feet on the deck. The fall was partly broken by the rigging, but he was seriously injured at the time. He was stunned and remained insensible for some hours after the accident, and was attacked with a peculiar distressing sensation in the neck, extending along the spine and each upper extremity. Notwithstanding this, after two or three days he recovered sufficiently to go through some of his duty, and he continued to perform his work, but under most aggravated sufferings, the pain being referred to the localities he had mentioned. Between two or three months afterwards he found from day to day that he was losing the power of his upper extremities, particularly about the shoulders, and it was remarkable that the deficiency in that power commenced in the upper arm and ultimately seized the lower and forearm, so that although he had to a certain extent lost the power of the upper arm, he was yet able to hold with a certain amount of control objects with his hand. The disease progressed, and the muscles became atrophied to such an extent that some were reduced to perfect bands; some were hardly traceable, even under the electro-magnetic current. The man was able to walk about, and able to support to a certain extent his head, but occasionally the head fell down on the thorax. In addition to the loss of power in the upper extremities, he might mention that sensation was peculiarly acute in some situations. In all it existed, but in some there was hyperæsthesia. This man was in the hospital at Carlisle, and was for a length of time under the care of Sir James Simpson, at Edinburgh, and in London under the care of Sir William Fergusson. [This man was then undressed and examined by the members.] Dr. Fleming observed upon the well-marked effect of this disease which the man exhibited. There was little more than a capsule of skin thrown over the bones without any development of muscle. The respiration was probably diaphragmatic. He particularly directed attention to the back part of the spinal column. It was rather improved since his admission to hospital. Then he could not bear the slightest touch, but now he was much less sensitive. The man was particularly accurate as to the history of his case; his intellect was perfect in every respect. He swallowed well. He could not bend or raise his arm, and when asked to shake hands did so by swaying his body round. When he came into hospital he could not bear to be touched in the right scapular region, but now he was much improved, and his head was held better up. The treatment in Edinburgh was electricity, which he liked and which he thought did him good, and he used strychnine also. His principal annoyance was a difficulty in respiration which he experienced in the morning. Occasionally there was some little interruption to the free function of the bladder and some slight attempt at incontinence of urine. He had examined the urine and found it normal in quantity and in quality.—*Medical Press and Circular*, May 9, 1866.

17. *The Sense of Smell Applied to Diagnosis*.—Dr. HENRY JOHNSON, in a paper read before the Shropshire branch of the British Medical Association (Nov. 3, 1865), expresses the opinion that the proper cultivation or education of the sense of smell would afford valuable diagnostic signs.

"A case," he says, "which occurred more than twenty years ago first directed my attention to this subject. A publican had a very loud, frequent, and pecu-

liar cough, with expectoration; and yet I could not detect satisfactory proofs of bronchitis, pneumonia, or tubercular disease. The odour of the sputa was not only most disagreeable, but quite peculiar, and unlike anything that I had smelt before. This expectoration was evidently purulent; and I thought that it came from an abscess of the liver, which had penetrated through the diaphragm and worked its way through the lungs. According to Dr. Budd, the matter of an hepatic abscess, when in contact with the lung (from admission of air), is *sometimes very fetid*. (See Budd *On Diseases of the Liver*.)

"The occurrence of this case, and the impression made upon me by the peculiar, disgusting odour of the sputa in this instance, enabled me to take a correct and a more hopeful view of another case which occurred some years later.

"Mrs H. had been long ailing with disordered digestion and derangement of the liver. There was also a good deal of pain and tenderness in the hepatic region, and even enlargement of the right hypochondrium. Poultices had been applied for some time to this part; and ultimately it became prominent. An abscess formed, and was opened by an incision. Matter escaped; but it had such an intolerable smell, that I believe my colleague at first feared that he had opened a fecal abscess. But the smell, though very disagreeable, was not *fecal*. It was so exactly like what I had noticed in the above mentioned case, that I ventured to give the more hopeful opinion that we had to do with an hepatic abscess; which proved true and the case did quite well.

"I went to see a patient with Mr. Keate. I do not think that any intimation had been given to me of the nature of the case; but I do know that the peculiar smell, which I perceived distinctly before an examination was made, convinced me that there was a cancer; and the examination of the uterus told me where it was.

"The odour of the breath is very peculiar in cases of albuminuria. One does not in all cases perceive this, but I have very frequently done so; and, when it is detected, it may literally put us upon the scent in the right direction, and chemical tests may afterwards confirm or refute our suspicions. The cause of this peculiar odour is said to be the presence of ammonia derived from the decomposition of urea in the lungs.

"Every one knows that the breath has a very peculiar sweet smell in diabetes. It is sometimes very disagreeable.

"I have also often noted a peculiar heavy smell in the breath when the bowels are loaded or deranged. I have thought it an indication of a sluggish liver; and this little hint has often led me to prescribe in the right direction.

"I do not pretend or desire, in this brief paper, to mention every state of the system in which some peculiar odour is perceptible; but in reading Dr. Tanner's new edition of his *Practice of Medicine*, I have incidentally met with the following appropriate instances.

"A peculiar sweet smell of breath may be perceived in persons having an internal suppuration. (p. 32.)

"A very disagreeable smell accompanies all cases of smallpox; and the breath is peculiarly offensive in scorbutus. (p. 44.)

"The odour of the breath is peculiar in lead colic. (p. 313.)

"Lastly, fetid breath occurs in gangrenous bronchitis."

Dr. Urquhart states (see Sir John Fife's *Manual of the Turkish Bath*) that there is an odour perceived to arise from human bodies, whilst perspiring in the bath, which is *characteristic of health*; and another which is perceived in disease; and that even the kind of disorder, in some cases, may be detected by the smell. He employed a sharp lad to detect the peculiar odour exhaled by different persons under the use of the bath, and asserts that this individual could discover not only the kind of disease, but even its peculiar seat. Thus were easily detected *albuminuria*, *gout*, *rheumatism*, *herpes*, and *ague*.

Mr. Urquhart says that the healthy body is not inodorous. It is endowed with a sweet odour, described by those whose organs are sensitive enough to detect it "as resembling *fresh sawn fir-boards*." "At the common temperature, the body may be inodorous in all its parts, and the breath also; and yet, on going into a temperature of 220° Fahr., in five minutes a slight smell of gout will come out of the feet and the breath. Half an hour later, and after being in at the

higher heat ten minutes or more, the smell of gout may become very strong in the feet, legs, thighs, breast, stomach, breath, and back. The smell of herpes may have come out in the hands, the arms, and shoulders. Half an hour later, and after having been twice under the great heat, the smell may have been taken out everywhere." (pp. 234-5.)

He says again, that in these experiments he should be wholly at sea, without the sense of smell to guide him.—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, Jan. 13, 1866.

18. *Death after Vaccination.*—Dr. SKINNER read before the Liverpool Medical Institution "an account of a case of revaccination in an adult which ended fatally by toxæmia;" but how this was produced Dr. S. did not pretend to say, as there never was at any time the slightest appearance of undue irritation or inflammation, far less of erysipelas, at the seat of the operation. We must express our own conviction that the fatal result was not the result of the revaccination. The case is, however, a very remarkable one. "J. B., aged 15, a young lady, with a menstrual function fairly and healthily established, had all her life enjoyed good health, and on the day of revaccination was as healthy-looking as could be desired. On the 9th of March, 1865, she was revaccinated with matter of unquestionable purity, the history of which will stand the closest scrutiny. Her mother and three servants were vaccinated at the same time, and with the same matter. The matter, contained in one of Dr. Husband's capillary tubes, was perfectly amorphous, clear, and transparent. The method of operating was that first recommended by Dr. Graham Weir, of Edinburgh—a plan in which Dr. Skinner had the greatest, and still has, unshaken confidence. The vesicle ran its natural course, and a more natural one there could not be. On the ninth day it began to scab; and all appearance of redness, swelling, and induration also began to disappear. On the eleventh day (20th March), a severe rigor occurred, followed by abdominal pain and obstinate sickness; pulse 140. These symptoms were speedily followed by tympanitic distension of the abdomen, rapid emaciation, icteric and anxious countenance, gasping respiration, and all the usual signs of death by asthenic toxæmia. She died on the seventeenth day (26th March) after the operation and the sixth day after the rigor. No post-mortem examination was obtained; but so rapid was the decomposition of the body, that the features were not recognizable twelve hours after death."—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, Jan. 13, 1866.

19. *A New Remedial Agent in the Treatment of Insanity and other Diseases.*—The following is an account of a remedy which after several experiments Dr. S. NEWINGTON asserts he has found most useful in the treatment of insanity. It is a remedy which appears to him to afford a powerful and valuable means of withdrawing the blood from any diseased organ to which there is an abnormal determination; and, at any rate, it is often most efficient in subduing the excitement of mania and in inducing sleep.

"It is not known," he says, "that during sleep the quantity of blood in the brain is less than during wakefulness, and that the active circulation of much blood through the brain is incompatible with healthy sleep. When the cerebral functions are disordered from excess of activity, mental anxiety, or other cause, there is a determination of blood to the brain, sleeplessness ensues, and the effect in its turn becomes the cause of further mischief. Maniacal patients have been frequently brought to me who have been for six or seven days without sleep, and when repeated doses of morphia and antimony have proved worse than useless. Indeed, the frequent disappointments from the administration of narcotic drugs during an experience of twenty-two years in the treatment of insanity have led me to try various experiments for the purpose of obtaining some simpler and more certain method of calming excitement and producing sleep.

"While staying at Matlock Bath, I was induced to try the effects of being wrapped up in cloths steeped in mustard and water, and applied to the whole legs and to the lower part of the abdomen. After the removal of a wet towel which had been applied round the head and was very uncomfortable, I began to experience the most soothing effects, and gradually passed into a dreamy

semi-conscious state, which lasted during the half hour I was under treatment. On getting up, I felt very lively and joyous, the liveliness lasting the whole day; and for nearly twenty-four hours there remained a pleasant tingling sensation in the legs, which were affected in no other way than by redness. It occurred to me at once that this kind of application might be very serviceable in certain cases of insanity, and immediately on my return home I set about making experiments for the purpose of testing its value. The first experiment was upon myself.

"On retiring to rest I ordered a large basin of linseed-meal and mustard (ten parts of the former to one of the latter) to be made into a paste, and spread upon a sheet of brown paper sufficiently large to cover the whole abdomen, a piece of muslin being interposed to keep the skin clean. In a short time I fell asleep, and was conscious of nothing till eight in the morning, when I was partially roused by persons about me; but I was unable to speak or move. One of my medical assistants was thereupon sent for, and he pronounced me in a state of stupor from some narcotic. Though I was unable to speak, I heard the whole of the conversation, and was in a dreamy semi-conscious state. On the administration of some stimulant I presently recovered.

"Another form in which I use the mustard is this: two handfuls of crude mustard are tied in a cloth and placed in hot water, then squeezed in the hand until the strength of the mustard has been extracted. A thick towel, long enough to reach round the loins, is then wrung out of this infusion, wrapped round the body, and covered with a large piece of macintosh. In one case a patient suffering from acute mania, who was restless, sleepless, and refused food, was thus treated with the greatest benefit. Before the application the pulse was 108, but after two hours of this treatment it had fallen to 60 in the minute, and the patient was in a quiet semi-conscious state. Afterwards he took his food regularly, and in a short time left, perfectly recovered.

"A third form in which this derivative treatment may be applied is as a mustard bath: in other words, an ordinary warm bath, into which have been thrown five or six handfuls of crude mustard. In some cases the deep hip-bath only may be used; but in severe cases of mania the whole body of the patient, with the exception of the head, should be placed in the bath. A lady so treated, who had during the last year had four attacks of violent mania, each lasting for five or six weeks, has now for twenty-two weeks had no further attack, although the symptoms usually forerunning the seizure have on several occasions occurred; the mustard bath appears to have warded off the recurrence of the excitement. In this case the bath was used once every twelve hours, for half an hour at a time, during a period of ten weeks; so that the skin was kept in a constant state of redness. It may be hoped that the habit of diseased action has now been broken, and that this patient, after due probation, may be discharged as recovered.

"Mr. W — was brought to me in a strait-waistcoat, and as many as six people had been, it was said, necessary to control him before his arrival at Ticehurst. Notwithstanding repeated doses of opium, he had not slept for six days and nights; and through the night after his admission he was excited, restless, and talkative. On the following night he was placed in a mustard bath for half an hour, so that he was perfectly red on being taken out. During the next eight days he had six of these baths, and at the end of a fortnight after admission returned home on trial.

"A lady who, notwithstanding repeated doses of morphia, had not slept for seven days and nights, was admitted in a state of mania, extremely incoherent and excited. After being in the mustard bath for half an hour she became calm and comparatively rational, and expressed herself as feeling much more comfortable. She was then wrapped up in a blanket and put to bed, where she soon fell into a sleep that lasted for seven hours; and in the morning she awoke free from excitement. The treatment was continued for six nights, and no further excitement occurred, although, as she had been insane for two years, her mind remained unsound.

"These instances, with others that I might quote, suffice to prove that in the proper use of these derivative measures we have a valuable remedial agency in

the treatment of insanity. As nature, aiming to restore the nervous element of the brain wasted by the day's labour, diminishes the activity of the circulation through it, and allows the process of repair to go quietly on, so we, imitating nature, strive in this treatment of insanity to withdraw the excess of blood from the disordered brain, and thus to favour the restoration of the natural equilibrium and the return of healthy function. And as when a morbid action continues for some time a *habit* of it is apt to be formed, and the habit to become a 'second nature,' so, on the other hand, whenever the morbid activity is interrupted, the tendency to revert to its sound type, which exists in all organic elements, fails not to assert itself, and, if sufficient time be allowed, to restore the normal function. We perceive then, how exceedingly important it is to produce natural sleep in the earlier stages of insanity.

"In using the mustard bath, it is necessary to protect the privates with a folded dry towel; and it is, of course, desirable to have the bath placed near the bed, so that the patient may pass directly from it into his bed. If a little constraint is required on the first occasion of its use, it will rarely be found necessary on any subsequent occasion."—*Half-Yearly Abst.*, vol. xlii, from *Lancet*, June 10, 1865.

20. *Treatment of Delirium Tremens by Capsicum*.—A case of delirium tremens treated by Dr. LYONS with capsicum, is related in the *Dublin Med. Press and Circular*, April 18, 1866. A drachm dose made into a bolus was taken without any difficulty, notwithstanding that some slight burning sensations were felt in the mouth and throat for a time, and a sense of diffused warmth through the stomach and bowels for a brief period subsequently. In less than one hour after the bolus was taken he fell into a quiet sleep, and some three or four hours subsequently awoke, perfectly calm, conscious, and convalescent.

"The results obtained by Dr. Lyons, in the use of this drug, fully bear out the experience acquired on a far larger scale of observation in the West Indies, and in the Melville Hospital by Dr. Kinnear, Dr. Lawson, and others of his distinguished colleagues in the public service at home and abroad. In the records of the Melville Hospital, not less than from seventy to eighty cases are reported to have been successfully treated by the sole use of this drug, in single or repeated doses, ranging from one scruple upwards. No gastric disturbance or other unpleasant symptom has been at any time noticed.

"As a stimulant of great and immediate efficacy, Dr. Lyons considers that its action may be explained by the direct influence it exerts upon the gastric expansions of the vagi, and so indirectly upon the cerebro-spinal centres. The phenomena of the disease he considers to point to a double condition of stimulated excitation and partial paralysis of distinct and perhaps opposite portions of the nervous system.

"For general employment it cannot be doubted that, as pointed out by Dr. Lyons, the use of capsicum offers many advantages over either opium or digitalis. In cases of recurrent delirium tremens associated, as they often are, at a somewhat advanced period of life, with fatty degeneration of the heart, both the latter drugs are very distinctly contraindicated, and their use has not infrequently been attended with results far from satisfactory, even when free from fatal result, which has not always been the case."

21. *Subcutaneous Injections*.—Dr. H. FRONMULLER, Sr., of Fürth, recommends the subcutaneous injections of the salts of morphia in hysteria, whenever the first dorsal vertebrae are painful. He relates four cases in which this means succeeded. He injected the acetate of morphia in doses of one-sixth, one-fourth, one-third, and one-half grain.

In organic diseases of the heart, when the pulse is frequent, he has injected digitalin with success. This article is suspended in distilled water and administered in the dose of one-tenth to one-fifth of a grain.

After trying baths, electricity, the injection of strichnia in a case of paralysis of the bladder, he tried the subcutaneous injection of physostigma, the alkaloid of the Calabar bean, in the dose of from one-tenth to one-seventh of a grain,

and had the satisfaction of seeing the power of the bladder restored after each injection for from ten to twelve hours. He then was obliged to suspend the remedy on account of its costliness.—*Revue de Thérapeut. Médico-Chirurg.*, Feb. 1, 1866, from *Berliner Wochenschrift*.

SURGICAL PATHOLOGY AND THERAPEUTICS, AND OPERATIVE SURGERY.

22. *Lipoma of the Spermatic Cord; Diagnosis from Diffused Hydrocele.*—A young man, aged twenty-one, of lymphatic temperament, had had from the age of thirteen an inguinal hernia on the right side. At the age of eighteen, he first perceived on the same side a soft painless tumour, extending in the course of the spermatic cord from the fold of the groin to the testicle; the latter organ retained its normal size. Three years after the first appearance of this tumour, Dr. G. MARZATTINI examined it. It was elongated, and had the form of a pyramid with the base downwards corresponding with the posterior part of the testicle, and the apex connected with the spermatic cord in the inguinal canal. The spermatic cord appeared very large; it was elastic, painless on pressure, uniform throughout, and without fluctuation or transparency. The shape of the swelling was not effected by change of position. Its circumference at the base was ten inches. Several surgeons, including Dr. Marzattini, arrived at the conclusion that the case was one of diffuse hydrocele of the cord. On operating, however, there was found to be a reddish-yellow fatty mass, consisting of very small round fat-globules. This mass was surrounded by a capsule of very vascular connective tissue. The operation was continued; the tumour was completely removed; and the patient soon recovered.

The following are the points of diagnosis, according to Dr. Marzattini, between lipoma of the cord and diffuse hydrocele. 1. Lipoma is developed much more slowly than diffuse hydrocele. 2. It is not attended with inflammation. 3. Its form is very variable, while that of diffuse hydrocele is generally the same, cylindrical at first, then pyramidal. 4. In hydrocele, there is fluctuation, which may be caused to vary with the position of the patient. 5. Diffuse hydrocele occurs especially in weak subjects at an advanced age; lipomata, on the contrary, are met with in persons of good health.—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, March 17, from *L'Ippocratico*; and *Gazette Méd. de Paris*, Jan. 27, 1866.

23. *Large Hygroma of the Foot.*—A girl, aged 15, of slender build, who had not yet menstruated, came under the care of Dr. J. F. HEYFELDER, of St. Petersburg, on account of a swelling on the dorsum of the right foot. It had appeared, without evident cause, six years previously, and had remained painless, but had increased in size until it extended from the tendo Achillis along the outer side to the phalanges of the toes, covering in the third, fourth, and fifth metatarsal bones. At first, the swelling presented the appearance of enchondroma, but was soft and fluctuating. It could be forcibly pressed and moved without pain; it did not impede the use of the foot, but prevented the patient from wearing a boot of ordinary shape. Dr. Heyfelder concluded that the tumour was a hygroma. On introducing a trocar, there escaped a somewhat turbid thick fluid, the flow of which was obstructed through the blocking up of the canula by some small granular bodies. These were removed, and many were driven out with the fluid through the canula by moderate pressure. It was found, however, that the tumour was only partially emptied; some cysts remaining distended, and refusing to yield up their contents when pressure was applied. Examination with a probe discovered a septum, which had to be divided before the other divisions of the swelling could be emptied. Dr. Heyfelder divided the inner septa in various directions by means of a long slightly curved knife, enlarging at the same time the external opening. By moderate pressure, the remainder of the contents of the swelling—a fluid of the thickness of honey, with granular bodies—

was discharged. A mixture of tincture of iodine, iodide of potassium, and water, was injected; and a cure was produced in fourteen days.—*Ibid.*, from *Berliner Klinische Wochen.*, 7 August, 1865.

24. *Multiple Neuromata Affecting the Nerves both within and external to the Spinal Canal, some of the Tumours being of a Cystic Nature.*—A case of this was communicated to the Royal Med. and Chir. Soc. (Jan. 23, 1866) by Mr. S. W. SIBLEY. It was submitted as being a remarkable example of the cystic form of nerve-tumour, and as an illustration of the extraordinary multiplicity which is sometimes observed in this form of disease. The subject of the disease was a coach-painter, who died at the age of forty-five in the Middlesex Hospital, under the care of Mr. Henry. The patient had enjoyed good health till seven years before his death, when he became less strong, but had no definite symptoms till four years ago, when the use of his lower extremities became impaired, and by degrees he lost all power of movement. He had also suffered from sloughing of the back. When admitted into the hospital he had no power over the voluntary muscles of the lower half of the body, the legs being contracted and drawn up. He retained some power of motion over his upper extremities, being able to feed himself if his food were first cut up for him. Cutaneous sensibility was quite absent in the lower extremities; but he was able to feel to a certain extent with his hands. The urine and the feces were passed involuntarily. A large tumour was observed below the elbow, and another below Poupart's ligament on the left side. He died after he had been in the hospital a month.

At the post-mortem examination there was no disease of the viscera of the chest or abdomen. The brain and the cranial nerves were healthy. On opening the spinal canal a number of tumours were observed connected with the nerves within the membranes of the cord. In the cervical region there were several tumours, and the largest of these (about the size of a large nut) had pressed upon the spinal cord, which at this point was extremely constricted and softened. There were also many neuromata in connection with the nerves in the lower part of the cord. In some places these were so numerous as to present the appearance of beads strung on a thread. The large tumour which was observed during life below Poupart's ligament was found to be connected with the anterior crural nerve. It was inclosed in a fibrous capsule, and on section presented the appearance of a fibro-cellular tumour interspersed with cysts. These cysts were of various sizes, the largest being about the size of an egg, and partly filled with imperfectly organized blood-clots. A second smaller cyst was filled with gelatinous material. The remaining small cysts were filled with clear serous fluid.—*Lancet*, Feb. 10, 1866.

25. *On Putrid Infection complicating certain Simple Fractures of the Jaw.*—In a communication to the Paris Surgical Society M. RICHER drew attention to this subject, which he believed has been overlooked by all writers on surgery. Its purport is summed up in his conclusions: 1. Fracture of the lower jaw, when the alveolar-gingival periosteum has been lacerated, and there is also a displacement of the fragments, should not be regarded as a simple but as a compound fracture, since the seat of fracture communicates with the cavity of the mouth, that is to say, both with the external air and the salivary fluids. 2. Besides purulent secretion at the seat of fracture, and the various complications of neighbouring abscesses, osteitis, necrosis, or delay in reunion, observed and described by authors (but which I believe to be of much more frequent occurrence than is generally admitted), there are other accidents of a general character which may become very serious and even fatal. 3. These general accidents, characterized by scarcely perceptible and irregular shivering, putridity of the breath, diarrhoea, vomiting, &c., when they terminate fatally do not leave any traces discoverable after death. 4. These general symptoms cannot be referred either to purulent infection, properly so called, or to typhoid fever. They are due to a kind of septicæmia or putrid intoxication, which I think should be termed acute to distinguish it from what was formerly called hectic fever.

The best means of preventing this very serious complication is the maintenance of the fragments in a state of complete immovability after the reduction of the fracture; and this may be best done by means of ligatures applied to the teeth. Even when the symptoms are very far advanced they may be arrested by this means, as proved by a case related in the paper. M. Dolbeau also informed its author that he had seen very formidable symptoms of putrid infection disappear in two cases after incisions had been made in a dependent position. At a subsequent meeting of the society, M. Chassaignac pointed out that he had in his work on suppuration fully described this serious complication of fracture of the jaw, and its treatment by means of drainage tubes. Nevertheless, it is certain that the occurrence is far from being generally recognized; fractures of the lower jaw being usually regarded as of little consequence, and certain to do well. Yet, of 27 cases, collected by Malgaigne from the registers of the Hôtel Dieu, 4 proved fatal; and of 10 cases observed by M. Richet, 2 were followed by death by reason of this putrid intoxication.—*Brit. and For. Med.-Chir. Rev.*, April, 1866, from *Gazette des Hôpitaux*, 1865, Nos. 117 and 124.

26. *Impacted Fracture of the Neck of the Femur; Recovery with firm Union, and a freely movable Joint; Limb slightly shortened.*—The following uncommon case reported in the *Medical Times and Gazette* (April 14, 1866), which occurred under the care of Mr. GANT, at the Royal Free Hospital, well exemplifies the suggestions of pathology in the *diagnosis* of an obscure form of injury to the hip. It will be observed that there was in this case an absence or nearly so of all the symptoms usually enumerated as characteristic of this injury except shortening of the limb, and this existed only to the extent of about a half an inch in the first instance. All the other symptoms were reduced to their lowest degree, so as to almost escape observation; yet this very negation of the usual symptoms suggests our diagnosis. Observing some degree of shortening after recent injury; without eversion of the limb, or scarcely any; without alteration of the contour of the joint itself, or scarcely any; without perceptible crepitation or alteration of mobility at the seat of injury, and without much power to raise the limb; then we have before us a case of impacted fracture. The pain and partial inability to use the limb may point to sprain as the kind of injury which the hip-joint has sustained, but the shortening without the concomitant symptoms of fracture assure us of the presence of an *impacted* fracture.

W. C., aged 48, labourer, admitted October 4, 1865, was knocked down by a drunken man in the street. He (the patient) fell on the pavement, striking his right hip, and with the leg twisted under him. On attempting to arise, he found he had no power in the right leg, which felt, as he described it, a "dead weight" to him. Any attempt at moving it also caused great pain in the hip.

He was brought to the hospital, and on examining him in the recumbent position, the following symptoms presented themselves. The limb is slightly shortened—not more than half an inch less in length than the left—and it is slightly everted; but there is no marked flattening of the joint, the great trochanter being quite preceptible, although a little higher in position than on the left side; nor, on the other hand, is there any notable contusion or swelling. No crepitation or preternatural mobility can be felt on rotating the limb and grasping the trochanter. Lastly, there is not total inability on the part of the patient to use his limb. He can lift it off the bed to a height of some inches, and lower it again pretty steadily, though the movement is evidently attended with great pain.

The limb was allowed to remain at rest for two or three days until the immediate effects of the injury had passed off, and the hip would bear the pressure of a splint.

October 8.—It was noticed that the limb had shortened upwards of half an inch more, making the whole extent of shortening upwards of an inch. It was also then specially noticed that the shortening could not be altogether overcome, and the limb brought to its proper length, by extension.

A long splint was applied with a perineal band, and by tightening this occasionally to increase the extension, the limb was gradually brought down to only

half an inch of shortening, which was the length finally attained at the end of a month. When the splint was removed a gutta-percha splint was then moulded to the hip, and a starched bandage applied over it. The patient was allowed to get about with crutches. Nothing worthy of note occurred afterwards.

December 5.—The patient can bear his weight partly on the limb, and can swing it freely, but soon becomes tired. His general health and strength, which were feeble before admission, have now much improved under the influence of good living, quinine, and cod-liver oil. In this state, or a better, as to use of the limb, he left the hospital on December 28.

27. *External Latero-Angular Dislocation of the Right Elbow-Joint.*—Mr. F. J. GANT records (*Med.-Chir. Rev.*, Jan. 1866) an instance of this remarkable and hitherto unrecorded dislocation. It occurred in a man, aged 50, whose right forearm was jammed between the “buffers” of two railway carriages, March 23, 1865. The patient was immediately taken to the Royal Free Hospital, where Mr. G. saw him, with his colleague Mr. De Meric.

The external appearances of the limb were peculiar. “The great transverse width of the elbow-joint was very obvious, and internally the trochlear portion of the humerus could be plainly felt and seen, threatening to protrude through the skin forwards and inwards—the direction which the humerus and arm, therefore, had assumed. More internally, another groove between the innermost ridge bounding the trochlea and the condyle was less conspicuous; and external to the trochlea the remainder of the articular portion, or capitellum, could be felt and seen, although less distinctly, as it receded from the skin, owing to the oblique direction of the humerus, its anterior surface looking outwards * * *

* * * “Just above and behind the internal condyle there was a small contused aperture leading to the articular surface, thus making the dislocation compound. Externally, neither the condyle nor any bony prominence could be felt. The forearm was not only semi-flexed forwards, but its axis formed rather less than a right angle with the humerus laterally, an external latero-angle. The origins of the supinator longus and extensor muscles of the wrist were driven up in a heap, so to speak; and as they, in common with all the muscles, were prodigiously developed, the fleshy swelling above the external condyle was very conspicuous. Posteriorly, the olecranon could be felt, although the arm was, as I have said, half flexed; but this bony prominence was not in its relative situation and direction to the humerus; it was underneath the outer half of the articular surface or capitellum, and it had of course the transverse direction of the whole forearm outwards.

“Passing from the outline of the joint and the relative attitude of the arm and forearm, the aspect of the latter was no less remarkable. Its anterior surface looked obliquely inwards and backwards, so that the forearm was half pronated, and the hand hung with the thumb inwards, and the palm downwards.”

“To complete the description: the forearm remained fixed or locked in this position from the elbow-joint to the hand, when the limb was left to itself. I may add, a large lacerated wound in the front, now the back part of the forearm, about its middle, led down to the radius and ulna, both which bones, with the interosseous membrane, could there be plainly felt and seen to the extent of about two inches, between the flexor muscles, now reduced to strings, as if they had been ploughed up in furrows.

“Strange to say, the skin was nowhere broken or bruised but in the two parts named—the front of the forearm, and just above the internal condyle; and there being scarcely any swelling at this early period, the appearances I have described were very striking.

“The pathological conditions discovered by dissection were no less remarkable: the skin was almost completely detached from the aponeurosis inclosing the muscles on the front and back of the forearm, and this lesion could be traced above the joint around the arm. The large tract of subcutaneous cellular texture, or superficial fascia, thus disorganized, was infiltrated with blood in patches here and there; yet this condition was not discernible through the skin itself, for the most part unbroken, and apparently unbruised. * * *

“The extent to which the muscles are destroyed by injury is equally mislead-

ing, because equally undefined externally. In the present instance the remnants of several muscles were visible through the large wound in the forearm. Dissection showed that all the flexor muscles, superficial and deep, were torn across, partially, or entirely. The flexor carpi radialis, flexor digitorum sublimis, palmaris longus, and the flexor carpi ulnaris—the whole group of muscles arising from the inner condyle, excepting the pronator radii teres, are severed in their muscular portion, sparing, however, the tendinous and aponeurotic portions, which now representing the muscles, appeared deep in the wound as so many shreddy strings, from which the muscular substance had been raked off. The two deep flexors of the thumb and fingers, respectively, are completely ruptured, thereby exposing both bones of the forearm, for an inch or two about their middle portion, from which, at that part, the periosteum was detached. The vessels and nerves have *all* singularly escaped injury. Thus, the ulnar nerve, stretched, but not torn, is also diverted from its course, as seen in the preparation and shown by the drawing. It passes from its groove, behind the inner condyle of the humerus, thence along the posterior margin of the articular surface of that bone, and thus gaining the forearm continues down to the wrist. It stood out in the wound as one of the strings referred to. The inferior profunda artery, accompanying this nerve above the condyle, is also unscathed. So, likewise, is the ulnar artery—a singular escape, considering the severe laceration of the two muscles, between which it and the nerve are situated in the greater part of their course. The median nerve, with its interosseous branch, and the corresponding branch of artery, are also uninjured; and lastly, the radial nerve and artery—this vessel beating freely under the finger when first I examined the arm, before amputation.

“It would appear that muscular texture offering less resistance to the forces of contusion and extension, all the muscles thus injured gave way; while tendons and aponeuroses, the nerves and vessels, being more resisting to such forces, none of these textures yielded. The latter cannot owe their preservation to position; for they were alike exposed to injury, the ulnar nerve and artery in particular.” * * *

“All the muscles (excepting the ulnar portion of the flexor carpi ulnaris) which arise by a common tendon from the inner condyle of the humerus, pass transversely outwards over the bone just above its articular surface: thus corresponding to the ulnar nerve in its course across the posterior margin of the cartilage, in this case. Between the two, the articular end of bone has made its appearance, directed inwards and forwards, while its anterior surface looks obliquely outwards, so that the inner condyle is most anterior. As before mentioned, it and the trochlea threatened to protrude through the skin. Externally, the biceps and brachialis anticus muscles, both of prodigious size, diverted outwards from their course, exposed the capitellum of the humerus, but their insertions conceal the precise position of the ulnar coronoid process and head of the radius. More externally, or rather, owing to the lateral angle of the forearm with the arm—higher up, the supinator longus and the two extensors of the wrist are elevated as a great muscular cushion over the head of the radius. Of these muscles, the supinator and superficial (or long) extensor of the wrist, are not detached from their origin—the external ridge above the condyle; but the deep extensor carpi radialis (brevior) was partly detached from its origin—the condyle, this muscle being here split into two portions, loosely encircling the head of the radius, which by its dislocation was in contact with and immediately concealed by the superficial extensor. Posteriorly, the insertion of the triceps extensor muscle was not torn but twisted transversely outwards, in the direction assumed by the olecranon and shaft of the ulna.

“Of the ligaments; the anterior, the internal and external lateral ligaments, are entirely demolished, the posterior ligament alone remaining, under cover of the insertion of the triceps.

“The articular ends of the three bones forming the elbow-joint, have the following relative position: Both bones of the forearm have undergone an external lateral dislocation, as complete as is usually met with, the larger sigmoid cavity of the ulna resting against the external condyle of the humerus. But both bones of the forearm have also undergone a further and *peculiar* displacement late-

rally, whereby their axes form a right angle or less with the humerus; thus constituting an external latero-angular dislocation. The inner half of the large sigmoid cavity embraces the condyle and capitellum, just behind its articular surface; the coronoid process (concealed) resting externally against the one, and the olecranon being underneath the other as far as the ridge between it, the capitellum, and trochlea. The head of the radius (concealed) is in close relation to, not in contact with, the external ridge of the humerus and just above the condyle, the ridge bisecting the round articular facet. Thus, the head of the radius is neither in front nor behind the humerus; it is not dislocated forwards or backwards. A portion of cartilage was chipped off the articular surface of each of the three bones.

"Taking now the pathological conditions of the joint in connection with the external appearances of the limb, it may be inferred, that the radius and ulna were wrenched outwards to a right angle with the humerus, making an external latero-angular dislocation. Simultaneously, all the ligaments of the elbow-joint, save the posterior one, were entirely torn across; while the end of the humerus protruded inwards and forwards, between the ulnar nerve with the olecranon and the muscles arising from the inner condyle.

"The *width* of the elbow transversely was thus greatly increased, both by the new position of the radius and ulna, capped by the fleshy bellies of the three muscles overlying the head of the former bone, and by the trochlea of the humerus, which projected inwards and forwards as far as the skin. Above the (former) articulation, the projection of the humerus inwards produced a divergence of the brachial vessels and nerves; the ulna nerve accompanying the bone inwards was stretched around its articular end, the brachial artery and median nerve passing outwards with the forearm.

"The brachialis anticus muscle, partly torn off the end of the humerus with the anterior ligament, and diverted outwards, still remained attached to the coronoid process below; and the biceps also, diverted in like manner, still retained its hold of the radial tubercle. Both these muscles therefore, acting advantageously, *flexed* the forearm *forwards*, and rotating the humerus outwards, gave an oblique direction to its dislocated articular end; while the long supinator and the two extensors of the wrist, having alike become flexors, retained the forearm *laterally* bent on the humerus. Even the triceps muscle acted partly as a lateral flexor, its insertion supporting the olecranon outwards, in a kind of sling.

"Lastly, the direction of the front of the forearm *backwards*, was produced by the very favourable pronating action of the pronator radii teres, aided somewhat by the extensor carpi radiales, and by the remnants of flexor muscles passing from the internal condyle to the hand, all of which assumed the function of pronators, owing to the extraordinary direction of the forearm outwards upon the humerus. Hence also the pronation of the hand, the thumb inwards and palm downwards.

"The relation of the injury in the forearm to the dislocation produced is a question full of interest and importance. It indeed opens up a general inquiry, as to how far the production of this or that form of dislocation is determined by the action of different muscles, rather than by the direction of external force, which apparently effects the particular dislocations commonly witnessed; and whether therefore uncommon forms of dislocation may be referred to the division or injury of certain muscles in a part more or less remote from the seat of dislocation. In short, the question is, the relation of such concurrent injury to dislocation as cause and effect? Thus, if the quadriceps extensor muscle of the thigh was severed by a sword cut, as the person so wounded sprang forward, might there not then be produced a dislocation of the femur into the *perineum*—a new form of dislocation, owing to this bone being delivered over to the resultant action of the ham-string and adductor muscles of the thigh, as by the momentum forward of the trunk, the femoral head started from its socket?

"Thus, then, it appears to me, that both the remarkable outline of the elbow-joint, and the striking attitude of the limb, flexed laterally as well as forwards and extremely pronated, are explained by considering the new relative position of the bones, the destruction of the ligaments, and peculiar disposition of the

muscles, subject possibly to the *freedom* given by the laceration of the flexors of the forearm. That the limb should be fixed or locked in the attitude thus acquired, follows, of course, from the peculiar grasp of the ulna on the humerus and the new action of the muscles around the joint.

"To reduce this dislocation, I should endeavour to unlock the bones by extension and counter-extension, *not* aided by the knee in the flexure of the elbow. That manipulation would, I think, make the radius and ulna start up still further laterally upon the humerus. Nor would I endeavour to extend the forearm in a line with the arm; but availing myself of the already relaxed position of the chief opposing muscles—namely, the biceps and brachialis, anteriorly, the supinator longus and the two extensors of the wrist, externally—I would draw the forearm down while bent on the arm, and simultaneously giving it a sweeping curve forwards and inwards around the external condyle and projecting capitulum of the humerus, I trust that the bones would snap into place.

"Amputation of the arm in its upper third was necessary in this case, owing to the extent of the injury. The operation, having been performed by Mr. De Meric, was followed by an excellent recovery."

28. *Amputation at the Knee.*—Prof. SYME bears strong testimony (*Edinburgh Med. Journ.*, April, 1866) in favor of the advantages of Mr. Carden's method of performing amputation at the knee, which the Professor regards as one of the greatest improvements in modern surgical practice.

"When I began," says Prof. S., "to amputate at the ankle, and found the great advantage of dividing the bone through its cancellated texture, it naturally occurred that the same consideration was applicable to the knee, and that, when circumstances permitted, amputation should be performed here rather than through the thigh, with its dense shaft and medullary texture. But, unfortunately, not being then aware of Mr. Carden's plan, I formed a covering for the bone by cutting it from the calf of the leg, which proved very inconvenient, and so counterbalanced the benefit anticipated, that this operation soon fell into disuse. Mr. Carden, pursuing quite an opposite course, made a semi-lunar incision in front, from side to side, with its convexity nearly over the tuberosity of the tibia, and reflected the flap of skin thus formed, so as to expose the muscles above the patella, where what remained of the limb was divided transversely. The popliteal artery, and any of the small branches that required ligature having been tied, the ample covering of integument was brought down to its place, where, being secured by sutures, it lay without any tendency to retraction, or requiring the restraint of bandages, while the dependent opening afforded a free vent for the discharge of matter. No trouble was experienced in the after-treatment, and the stump proved entirely serviceable, since the skin over the bone, instead of becoming thinner, acquired additional thickness, so that the patients could rest upon it just as they do after amputation at the ankle.

"But the advantages of this operation are not limited to its facility and satisfactory results in the event of recovery, since its great claim to respect and confidence is the safety that attends its performance."

On the 19th of September last Prof. S. saw, with Mr. Annandale, a patient in the hospital "who had been admitted with both of his legs completely shattered by a large mass of iron falling upon them. It was obvious that he must die if the limbs were retained, and no less so that amputation of both thighs would in all probability prove fatal. I therefore suggested that Mr. Carden's operation might be performed, which was accordingly done by Mr. Annandale with the most satisfactory result."

Soon after this (October 23) Prof. S. saw, with Dr. Mackenzie, of Kelso, "a young farmer whose life was in great danger. It appeared that while on horseback, during the race week, he had been struck by the shaft of a cart in the crowded street, with such violence as to cause a fracture of his leg. There was no wound, but the limb suddenly swelled and became cold, with dark discoloration. Inflammatory symptoms succeeded, with corresponding constitutional disturbance, and on the fourth day it was generally supposed that the case must

prove fatal from spreading gangrene. But Dr. Mackenzie thought that amputation might still afford a chance of escape; and although the prostration was extreme, with a pulse hardly to be felt, so that cutting through the thigh must have been almost certainly and speedily fatal, I proposed to operate at the knee, and did so without delay, when it appeared that the posterior tibial artery had been ruptured at the seat of injury. The patient was no sooner relieved from the mortified limb than he began to improve, and, through careful nursing, made a good recovery with an excellent stump.

"On the 4th of November, Dr. Hislop, of North Berwick, requested me to see a clergyman who had been confined to bed for more than twelve months, by disease of the knee-joint, with no prospect of improvement, and constantly increasing weakness. It seemed that skin and bone naturally predominated in the constitution of his frame, and that from long-continued exhaustion little else of it remained. I should therefore have regarded amputation of the thigh as a most unpromising procedure, but with my recently acquired faith in the knee-operation, felt no hesitation in performing it. Everything went on favourably afterwards, and the reverend gentleman speedily regained his health, with a comfortable stump."

"On the 1st of January, W. M., aged 32, was admitted into the hospital on account of a compound fracture which his leg had sustained on the railway. An attempt was made to save the limb, apparently for a time with some prospect of success; but on the 9th, from the amount of discharge and the extent of shattering which was revealed by the ulceration and sloughing that had taken place, it became obvious that amputation afforded the only chance of escape. I therefore operated at the knee; and although the circumstances were most unfavourable for recovery, I had the pleasure of seeing the patient gradually improve in health, with the prospect of a good stump.

"A boy, *æt.* 6, was admitted into hospital on the 20th of January, with mortification of the foot, from a railway injury, and threatening of gangrene extending up the leg. I amputated at the ankle in the hope of arresting the mischief in progress, but with only partial success, since inflammation affected the periosteum, so as to cause necrosis of the whole tibia, and establish profusely discharging sinuses above as well as below the knee. The patient then became so extremely weak that his case appeared to be hopeless, and would, I believe, have proved to be so, had we not possessed a milder alternative than amputation of the thigh. I removed the limb at the knee on the 14th of this month, and the operation was followed, instead of sinking, by such an improvement of condition as encourages us to look for the most satisfactory result.

"Soon after his double amputation at the knee, Mr. Annandale had a patient, in private, suffering from disease of the knee-joint, who was so exhausted by hectic, bed-sores, and profuse discharge, that amputation of the thigh seemed to afford no prospect of recovery. He therefore amputated at the knee on the 25th of October, with the almost unlooked for result of complete recovery.

"Dr. Joseph Bell, who takes charge of the surgical clinical wards in my absence, admitted a patient on the 26th of January, who had suffered a compound fracture of both legs on the railway then in progress of construction at Queensferry, whence he had been brought all the ten miles in a cart. One limb was shattered beyond the possibility of recovery, the other being less seriously injured. The former was amputated at the knee, and the latter so successfully treated that the man is now able to walk on it with the assistance of crutches.

"From what has been said, I trust it will appear—

"1st. That Mr. Carden's operation is less dangerous to life than amputation of the thigh.

"2d. That the execution, ligature of vessels, and after-treatment, are simple and easy.

"3d. That the resulting stump is comfortable and serviceable.

"These considerations will, I trust, meet with due attention, and tend to promote the adoption of a procedure destined, I feel assured, to supersede amputation of the thigh, which, notwithstanding all the attempts to prove it, has so long remained an opprobrium of surgery."

29. *Ligature of the Femoral Artery for Aneurism.*—Prof. SYME relates (*Edinburgh Med. Journ.*, May, 1866) a case of a man 26 years of age admitted into hospital 18th Nov. for a large femoral aneurism of two months' duration. Three days afterwards the Professor tied the artery. This patient, who suffered nothing from the operation, which had been done under chloroform, was immediately relieved from the excessive pain previously endured with hardly any cessation. The wound healed by the first intention, except at the ligature, which was detached on the 13th of December; and everything went on well afterwards.

This is Prof. S.'s thirty-fifth case of ligature of the femoral artery, in none of which has the operation proved unfavourable with the exception of one, which terminated fatally from suppuration of sac. "But," he states, "even on this solitary occasion the result could hardly be attributed to the operation, as the parts concerned with it were found perfectly sound and free from the morbid condition, which seemed distinctly referable to the derangement of health that had been induced by a prolonged attempt to cause coagulation through pressure at the groin. This treatment, continued for many days and nights, had disordered the patient's sleep, appetite, and mental composure, so as in all probability to excite a proneness to unhealthy action. Should such an explanation not be deemed satisfactory, the result of my experience in ligature of the femoral artery would still be one death in thirty-five cases."

It is well known, Prof. S. maintains that ligature of the femoral artery is the most efficient and safest cure for aneurism of that artery; and that its alleged danger depends upon its faulty performance. "To tie the femoral artery safely," he says, "the surgeon should be impressed with the conviction that the operation is one not of difficulty but of great nicety. He should make an incision between two and a-half or three inches long in the proper situation, cut through the fascia to a smaller extent, and expose the sheath of the vessels. So far he can hardly go wrong, but then, instead of hastening to pass the needle, he should, by ligature, or the temporary application of spring forceps, close every little vessel that discharges enough of blood to obscure distinct vision of the object he has in view. Let him now seize the sheath with dissecting forceps, and, gently raising it, make a small opening by means of a straight narrow sharp-pointed knife. The cellular and fatty substances which envelop the vessels in variable quantity are next to be elevated and divided in successive portions until the external coat of the artery appears quite distinct and *white*, when the needle may be passed without the slightest difficulty or danger."

"The local means employed," Prof. S. remarks, "for the remedy of aneurism may be divided into those which are effectual and those which are tentative or uncertain. The former comprehend amputation, ligature on the cardiac side of the tumour, and laying open the sac, so as to secure the vessel at its seat of rupture; while to the latter may be referred pressure, injection into the sac of fluids calculated to promote coagulation, and the agency of galvanism. It is obvious that the effectual means should be preferred in practice to those that are doubtful, unless some good reason can be shown for choosing the latter instead of the former; and it may now be inquired how far this admits of being done.

"Amputation can be justifiable only in cases altogether beyond the reach of any other remedy. Thus, a hundred years ago, before the Hunterian operation had been devised, amputation of the thigh was practised in cases of popliteal aneurism; and Mr. Wilmer, of Coventry, tells us that up to his time (1780) he was not aware of a single instance in which the patient had retained his limb. But now it would be considered unwarrantable to amputate, except when mortification had either taken place, or was evidently impending. Thus, in a case of axillary aneurism, where gangrene had extended from the fingers to the shoulder, I amputated at the joint through the tumour, and secured the artery close to the clavicle, with the result of a perfect recovery.

"Laying open the sac and securing the artery at its seat of rupture, or the 'old operation,' as it has been called, is certainly in general the most expedient method for remedying aneurism of a traumatic origin, since the great principle established by Mr. John Bell, and enforced by Mr. Guthrie, of arresting arterial

hemorrhage by means applied directly to its source, is no less applicable after than before the external wound is healed. In ten cases of brachial aneurism, resulting from wounds in venesection, I have pursued this course with success; and when the circulation can be commanded by a tourniquet, as in that situation, nothing can be easier than the operation. But when the tumour is so near the trunk as to prevent constriction of the artery concerned, there are other means that may be employed. In a case of carotid aneurism, having its base rather lower than the sternum, which had been caused by the thrust of an assailant's knife, I opened the sac so as to admit my finger, and closed the orifice with it until the vessel was exposed and secured on both sides of the aperture. In a very large aneurism of the gluteal artery, resulting from a stab sustained seven years before the patient came under my care, I introduced one finger after another until my whole hand was in the cavity, where it detached the firmly adhering clots, so as to place the injured vessel within reach of the ligature, when the sac was laid freely open. In axillary aneurism, again, I have found it sufficient to make an incision above the clavicle to admit the finger of an assistant, and allow it to exert effectual compression of the artery where it passes over the first rib.

"It has been supposed that the old operation, in its most extended employment, should be limited to traumatic aneurisms, but I have endeavoured to show¹ that there are some situations, and more especially the axilla, where it should be in general preferred on the ground of safety as well as facility. The disease usually originates here at some distance below the clavicle, in consequence of a sudden and violent action of the arm; and although the sac may attain a large size, it does not denote an equivalent destruction of the artery, which, on the contrary, may remain as sound within the cavity as when lying beyond it at an earlier stage of its progress. Encouraged by this consideration, I have repeatedly amputated with success at the shoulder-joint through axillary aneurisms, and still more frequently performed the old operation for their remedy, even when the tumour had attained an immense size. In the only case of this kind that proved fatal, the tumour had caused absorption of several ribs, so that the pleura formed part of the sac, and the patient died from inflammation thus induced, rather than from any effect directly due to the operation.

"Of the uncertain means, pressure is the least objectionable, and in the treatment of popliteal as well as femoral aneurisms, when applied at the groin, has frequently proved successful; but it has also not unfrequently failed and produced bad consequences, as would more distinctly appear if the failures had been no less carefully recorded than the successes. This method, however, has the advantage of being practicable by those who are not prepared to tie the artery with safety, and therefore may be employed when the circumstances do not admit of this being done. But while to this extent regarded as a useful substitute for the ligature, pressure must be held of inferior value to it when properly executed, on the grounds of facility, rapidity, painlessness, and safety: so that a surgeon who endeavours to cultivate the most beneficial exercise of his art, making excellence and not mediocrity the object of ambition, will hardly hesitate as to which of the two methods should be preferred."

30. *Lumbar Colotomy (Amussat's Operation) Successfully Performed for the Relief of a Vesico-Intestinal Fistula.*—MR. T. HOLMES, in a communication made to the Royal Medical and Chirurgical Society, remarked that "ulcerated openings sometimes take place between the bladder and either the small or large intestine, which have no connection with previous stricture of the gut, still less with cancer. In those cases in which the feces come from the lower bowel, and are consequently more solid, great suffering is produced, and the formation of calculus in the bladder becomes exceedingly probable. In such of these cases as are not dependent upon malignant disease, colotomy, by diverting the feces from the fistulous channel, may possibly enable the latter to close, and is at any rate necessary in order to relieve the sufferings caused by the feces passing into the bladder. The author read the notes of a case in which communication ex-

¹ Trans. Med. and Chir. Soc. of London, vol. xliii.

isted between the bladder and some part of the bowel above the rectum, and in which Amussat's operation was performed eight months since; the patient being now in good health, and in a condition of tolerable comfort, with evidence of considerable contraction, if not complete closure, of the fistula. References were also made to some other cases of communication between the bowel and bladder, with a view to support the opinions here put forward and the treatment adopted in the above case; and also with a view to the diagnosis of the seat of the communication with the bowel when out of reach of the ordinary means of examination.—*Lancet*, April 14, 1866.

31. *Paracentesis Thoracis in an Infant*.—Dr. GUINIER, of Montpellier, publishes in full detail the history of a case which he believes to be without an analogue in the history of medicine. No case, he says, has been published in which paracentesis thoracis has been successfully performed on a child under the age of three years; but, in Dr. Guinier's case, the child on whom the operation was performed was only twelve months old, and recovered. The child was seized with febrile symptoms on March 3, 1863. On the 15th, there was, for the first time, distinct evidence of pleural effusion; and on the 28th, it being evident that no other remedy was of avail, tapping was performed with relief to the patient. A subcutaneous abscess afterwards formed, and was opened by a lancet; and a plug of charpie covered with cerate was introduced into the pleural cavity so as to close the cutaneous opening. This was done on April 13, and, on May 4, the child was considered well. The respiration was more extensive in the affected lung; the spine was pushed to the left, and the left side of the chest was narrowed. After several further notes of the state of the child's health, it is stated on March 30, 1864, that the child had had excellent health through the winter; that the deviation of the spine and the narrowing of the chest no longer existed, that the breathing was normal, there being very slight obscurity of the breath-sound behind. In November, 1865, the child was still in excellent health.—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, March 17, 1866, from *Bull. Génér. de Thérap.*, January 30, 1865.

32. *Application of Chloride of Zinc in Solution to Surgical and Accidental Wounds*.—A writer in the *Lancet* (April 14th, 1866), bears testimony to the utility of this practice as recommended by Mr. De Morgan. (See last number of this Journal, p. 532 *et seq.*) He states: "We learn that whereas, previous to the adoption of this practice, erysipelas and pyæmia following operations were common occurrences, such accidents are now scarcely ever met with. The process has now been employed about nine months. During that time erysipelas has attacked no case in which chloride of zinc had been used, although numerous patients affected with the disease have been admitted into wards containing surgical patients. On the other hand, it happened quite recently that something like a crucial test was applied. An old woman had a tumour of the breast removed, and the application of the chloride was accidentally omitted. A few days after the operation she was attacked with erysipelas, which subsided and then recurred, involving her face and head. Again we are informed that during the same period only two patients to whose wounds the chloride of zinc had been applied have died from pyæmia: a young man in a very exhausted state, whose knee had been excised a month previously; and a woman, who had part of the sternum gouged out to remove some secondary cancer growth. She died six weeks after the operation. Long before this all direct effect of the chloride must have passed off; and Mr. De Morgan, with his present experience, thinks that had the wound been washed with the solution from time to time the result would have been different.

In the course of numerous visits to Middlesex Hospital, we have carefully observed the condition of wounds which have been treated by Mr. De Morgan's method, and these are the points which are most noticeable. On turning down the bedclothes and removing the dressings, we have always remarked the absence of that peculiar sickly smell which is commonly observed in the neighbourhood of open wounds, especially where bone is exposed. The wound itself is peculiarly healthy looking; the granulations firm and of good colour; suppura-

tion moderate; the skin up to the margin of the wound of perfectly natural colour and temperature. There has been indeed in every case which we have examined an entire absence of inflammatory action. Lastly, and this is a very striking and important point, many patients have told us that they felt no pain in the wound after operation; others have experienced pain for an hour or so; in none have we found it insisted upon as a serious inconvenience.

Until these results are witnessed, it is very difficult for any one reading or hearing of this process to divest his mind of the idea of destruction and irritation as necessarily associated with the use of a substance which is well known as one of our most powerful caustics. We are often, however, apt, unconsciously to endow a "caustic" with a sort of vitality—to look upon it as a substance possessing an inherent power of destruction under any circumstances. But it should be remembered that the caustic property of chloride of zinc probably depends upon the extreme attraction of this substance for water. Dissolved in that fluid, this quality, of course, ceases *ipso facto*; but the power of entering into certain chemical combinations in the tissues and blood remains.

33. *Citric Acid for the Relief of the Pain in Cancer.*—Mr. C. J. DENNY states (*Lancet*, March 29, 1866) that he has found the application of citric acid to cancer to afford complete relief from pain. He uses one drachm of the acid to eight ounces of water. It must be used for two days before much effect can be expected.

OPHTHALMOLOGY.

34. *The Modern Methods of Dealing with Cataract.*—Mr. M. A. ADAMS, of Maidstone, read before the S. E. branch West Kent District Med. Soc., an account of the modern operations for cataract, and gave the results of the clinical experience gained in the Kent County Ophthalmic Hospital with these methods.

He states that since the 1st of January there had been performed at the hospital just named 116 operations for cataract.

1. *Solution.*—In 28 instances, the ordinary needle-operation for solution was employed; 16 of these were cases of congenital cataract; 5 were traumatic. Three of the congenital cases were in members of the same family; besides which, two others—in all, five out of six children, born of the same parents, were similarly afflicted. The anterior operation has been universally adopted. In no case has there been an untoward symptom. In one only was the operation thrice repeated. In the general way, twice was found sufficient. In several cases this proceeding was supplemented by extraction by the suction-curette.

Mr. A. regards the operation for solution "as decidedly the simplest and safest for the removal of an opaque lens—most adapted to very young children, and always, when carefully performed, securing most satisfactory results, its only drawback being its tediousness. This objection increases in force with the years of the patient, hence the variety of new expedients which have at various times—but more especially within the last few years—been proposed to take its place."

2. *Linear Extraction.*—Advantage is taken in this operation of the action of the aqueous humour on the lens, which causes it to swell and become more friable, so that it will pass more readily through a small opening in the cornea.

"To carry this into practice, the pupil being well dilated by atropine, the cornea is pierced near its margin by a fine needle, with which the anterior capsule is very freely lacerated in the area of the dilated pupil. At the same time, the body of the lens is comminuted to a considerable depth, great care being taken not to injure the posterior capsule or to loosen the attachment of the lens-capsule to its suspensory ligament. This concludes the first stage of the operation.

"The eye is kept well under the influence of atropine; and in the course of one, three, or four days, the lens matter swells up, filling the pupillary area, and

sometimes both the chambers of the aqueous humour. And woe betide the iris if it be not well dilated at this time; it is squeezed and pushed in all directions by the swollen fragments of lens pressing upon it and the ciliary processes, sometimes causing great pain and ciliary injection, which, unless the second stage of the operation be at once proceeded with, would soon pass into destructive inflammation.

"Thus far all operators are agreed, the only difference being that some employ two needles, whilst others use only one.

"To complete the operation, Gibson used an ordinary cataract-knife to puncture the cornea near its temporal edge, on withdrawing which, some of the cataract was expelled with the aqueous humour; and, as far as possible, the remainder was extracted by the grooved end of the curette.

"It is more common now to use a broad lancet-shaped needle, two or three lines in width, which has the advantage of making an opening as large internally as externally.

"Mr. Walker has contrived a broad grooved needle, and so does away with the curette. To this there are the objections that, being obtusely pointed and somewhat thick at the shoulders, it requires considerable force to cause it to pass through the cornea; so that, on completing the erection, it is liable to jerk further than is intended; and that, as the chamber becomes emptied of its contents, the parts are in danger of being wounded by the point of the knife.

"To facilitate the exit of the particles of cataract along the groove of the instrument, slight external pressure is made; and closing the eye will sometimes also assist by causing fragments concealed behind the iris to make their appearance in the pupil, and so place them in a situation admitting removal by the curette. Seldom, however, is it possible to extract nearly the whole of the lens at one operation by either of these methods. Two, three, or more are generally required, at intervals of days or weeks, according to circumstances.

"As these several manœuvres occupy some little time, chloroform should be administered, as far as possible, to avoid the risk of such awkward accidents as wounding of the posterior capsule, protrusion of the vitreous humour, injury to the iris, etc., often caused by the straining of the patient. Suppuration in the tract of the wound is also liable to occur, and is easily accounted for by the frequent passage of the curette. Even in the very best of cases, some amount of iritis with adhesion to the anterior capsule must be looked for."

3. *Suction-Curettes*.—Many, if not all, of these difficulties, Mr. A. conceives, are surmounted by the suction-curette recently devised by Mr. T. P. Teale, Jr., and of which a full description with the method of using it was given in the No. of this Journal for April, 1865, pp. 516-518.

Mr. A. has had 25 cases of this operation in the hospital since the 1st of January, viz: 15 congenital; 4 traumatic; 2 diabetic; 4 various.

In two cases, a man and a woman, each of the age of 40, the operation failed, from the lens being too hard. (Mr. Teale has reported three cases—one of 40 years, two of 42 years, in which it succeeded easily.) In one case, a lad, 17 years old, severe irritation was caused by injury to the posterior capsule. In another, considerable iritis occurred; the poor boy, 8 years of age, being out of health from chronic albuminuria. Except these two cases all did well, and were restored to sight, with perfectly sound eyes in every respect, *minus* the crystalline lens.

"In a few of my earlier cases, the patients complained of excessive pain directly after the operation, which was immediately relieved by ice. I believe that this pain was caused by the too sudden atmospheric pressure on the eyeball, compressing the ciliary nerves. Since then, I have been more deliberate in the suction process, and have heard no more complaints of severe pain. Each of these several methods will perfectly dispose of a soft cataract."

4. *Iridectomy Operations*.—Mr. A. next describes the three methods of Schuft, Mooren, and Jacobson for dealing with hard cataract—"that is, hard in the accepted sense." We need not quote his account of these operations as they have already been described in the No. of this Journal for January, 1864, pp. 261-263.

It is seldom, if ever, Mr. A. says, that the whole of the lens can be removed

by one introduction of the scoop. "In the hands of the very best operators, so far as I have seen, it has been necessary to reintroduce it several times; and, even with this, it may well be doubtful if even the capsule is so thoroughly emptied of its contents as in a well conducted flap-extraction. Hidden behind the iris may easily lie concealed fragments of the marginal portion of the lens—entangled, perhaps, in the retracted shreds of its capsule; and, with the operator's utmost skill and vigilance some such fragments will occasionally, if not often, elude his instrument and escape detection. These within a few hours begin to swell, and are, no doubt, the most fruitful source of disappointment in this operation—setting up most severe iritis, the inflammation often extending to the deeper structures of the eye, leading eventually to atrophy and shrinking of the globe, if not to acute suppuration."

Each of these three operations, Mr. A. states, have been practised in the hospital, "but only those of Schuft and Jacobson since the beginning of the year; Schuft's five times, Jacobson's once. Four of the former have turned out very well; the fifth, I fear, will not prove satisfactory. This case was one of immature cataract in a woman aged 64. She had been under my observation for three years, during which time her cataracts, as regards their opacity, had apparently remained stationary. Everything went well with the operation, and I had no reason to expect other than a favourable issue. However, in the course of the night of the third day, she was seized with very severe iritis, since which she has been going from bad to worse.

"Doubtless, we must expect to meet with failure sometimes, whichever be the method chosen for the extraction of cataract. Nevertheless, I cannot help expressing a strong conviction, formed partly from the opinion of others, but chiefly from my own observation, that Schuft's operation is much more liable to the severe form of iritis than the old flap-extraction. Be this as it may, our success with the latter operation has led us greatly to prefer it before all others, as a rule, in cases of hard cataract. Perhaps a very prosperous season has caused us to form a higher opinion of it than we otherwise should do."

5. *Flap Extraction*.—"Of the 28 operations of flap extraction we have had within the time indicated, 25 were uncomplicated cases of idiopathic senile cataract; 16 were men, 9 women. The oldest was a man aged 80; the youngest a man of 47.

"In a woman, aged 70 years, a large prolapse, also in two men slight prolapse of the iris occurred. With these three exceptions, in every case the section healed perfectly within the week with central pupils. All recovered good sight except a man of 80 years, who, after progressing most favourably up to the eighth day, with every prospect of a most excellent recovery, was seized with violent diarrhœa, causing inflammation of the section, which soon extended to the iris, and ended in atrophy of the globe.

"Of the three complicated cases, in one, severe choroidal disease was known to exist; and, upon completing the section in the usual way, the lens was expelled before laceration of the capsule was attempted, and this was immediately followed by a bulging forward of the iris and hyaloid membrane from intraocular hemorrhage. No external bleeding occurred; but the globe soon became much distended, and there was considerable pain. There being no doubt as to the nature of the case, excision of the ball was performed.

"In another, owing to the patient's extremely feeble health, it was fully a month before the section healed; notwithstanding which considerable sight was preserved.

"In the third case, a poor, half-witted old woman would, in spite of all care and remonstrance, walk about the ward in the middle of the night crying and shouting, fancying herself in a lunatic asylum. She recovered excellent sight in one eye; but lost the other.

"As regards the operation itself, I need not detain you with a description of any of its details, except to mention that the upper section has been universally adopted.

"A few words will suffice to dispose of the accidents and difficulties encountered. Three times it was necessary to enlarge the corneal wound; once in the case of the unruly, half-witted woman before alluded to. In another, in

order to avoid cutting the iris, a large portion of which had prolapsed, the knife was withdrawn, and the section completed with the scissors. This patient had very large prominent eyes, and the accident arose from a premature escape of the aqueous humour. He afterwards suffered from prolapse; but eventually did tolerably well. In the third case, the upper lid slipped from under the finger and fell on the knife, which was withdrawn, and part of the iris removed after the section was completed; so converting the operation from an ordinary flap-extraction to a Jacobson's. The case did well.

"Once the lens was found completely degenerated, the capsule containing fluid and a little earthy matter.

"In the case of a woman, aged 71, the moment the section was completed, without there having been any external pressure on the globe, the lens sank bodily, capsule and all, out of sight into the vitreous humour, which was fluid. I failed in the attempt to seize it with the sharp hook; but succeeded in fishing it out with a Schuett's spoon. The patient recovered without a bad symptom, and with a circular and perfectly central pupil. Only in this and one other case was there any loss of vitreous humour.

"The capsular opacities following flap extractions and suction operations, have usually either been torn through with needles or cut with the canula-scissors, but, whenever possible, removed by the canula-forceps. While, after the twenty-eight flap-extractions, this proceeding was necessary only in five instances, it was required seven times after the twenty-five suction operations.

"Altogether, there have been twenty-seven capsular operations."

In conclusion, Mr. A. says that the suction method and the operation of Schuett "are destined often to take the place of the older methods of solution and flap-extraction. Without presuming to decide upon the merits of these two operations, I would venture to indicate that, whereas in the case of extraction by suction the improvement is, though perhaps less important, more obvious, it is surely a step in the right direction when an operation can be simplified, and at the same time the cure rendered more sure and perfect; and this, as far as my experience will allow me to speak, is attained by the operation of suction. With a smaller wound, at one operation, in a few moments, a soft cataract can be wholly removed from the eye, with little irritation, and with no injury of consequence to any of the important structures.

"Here, then, the improvement is most obvious. No one can question it. Not so with the operation of Schuett; which has not, so to speak, such *prima facie* evidence of improvement over the flap-extraction as suction has over the older linear. That it possesses great claims to be well considered, all will admit: for instance, the comparative security from prolapse, and a non adaptation of the wound, which the smallness of the section secures, are great boons; yet this advantage has its drawback. Does it not introduce a new element of danger into the operation? Only consider how very little short of the full half section in flap-extraction will impede the exit of the cataract. What, then, takes place in the removal through a quarter section? Either the lens must break up into fragments, or allow its shape to accommodate itself to the wound; or, which is impossible, the wound itself must stretch. The fact is, the lens often does break; and, when it does not, it is forcibly squeezed into proportions which will allow of its passage through the wound. If the broken fragments can be thoroughly extracted, well and good; but some are very likely to elude observation, and, as I have before stated, set up severe iritis (the bane of this operation); or, if the lens have tenacity enough, and the surgeon have patience enough to withdraw it whole, the squeezing of the lens into shape is also a pressing and bruising of the lips of the wound and the neighbouring parts to an equal extent. This, then, gentlemen, if you agree with me, is a weak point in the operation, and all the more detracts from its merits, since there is no such risk with the old flap extraction."—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, Jan. 13, 1866.

35. *Black Cataract*.—It is stated (*British Med. Journ.*, Jan. 27, 1866) that an actual black cataract has been lately removed by Mr. WALTON at the Central London Ophthalmic Hospital, of which we give the particulars, as there are some points of physiological and pathological interest connected with it.

"A man, 65 years of age, was sent to Mr. Walton by Mr. Philbrick, of Colchester, because of his blindness. In both eyes there was the congenital defect, coloboma iridis, or deficiency of a segment of the iris, in a marked degree. His sight was so little affected by it, that he worked successfully as a gardener, and his employers never knew that he had any defect.

"The coloboma is sometimes accompanied with a split or fissure in the retina. It is impossible to say whether this existed; probably not, because of the quality of the sight.

"Except that there were a few minute dots of gray in the pupil of the left eye, nothing could be recognized there, as all else was black. Even when the light of the ophthalmoscope was concentrated on it, nothing more could be seen: but as the interior of the eye could not be illuminated, sufficient light not entering for the purpose, it was evident that there was some black body that intercepted the rays. There was scarcely any sight in the eye, only the mere perception of light from darkness.

"Mr. Walton operated by extraction, and made the lower section of the cornea, because the iris was cleft in that direction. The cataract proved to be quite black, and of the usual consistence. It was put aside for minute examination, but unfortunately was destroyed. The gray markings spoken of must have been in the capsule, for no such appeared on the cataract.

"The case proceeded without a bad symptom, and the cornea healed well, but there was no beneficial result. There is no more sight than existed before the operation. This important question then arises. Are those changes in the interior of the eye, by which the eye is spoiled, and the nature of which cannot be ascertained by the ophthalmoscope when the crystalline lens is lost, associated with the peculiar alteration in the lens? Do they go together as allied diseased states, or is their association accidental?

"But a few years ago, every case of loss of sight, in which the pupil looked black, was called amaurosis. It is very likely that many a black cataract was so designated. This shows how necessary it is to use the ophthalmoscope, both for the positive and the negative information we get from it.

"In the right eye also there was cataract. The centre of it was quite black, while a small marginal portion was rather deep brown than black. The interior of the eye could not be illuminated by the ophthalmoscope. There was very little sight. Mr. Walton did not operate; he thought it most probable that the back of the eye was defective, as on the opposite side; and the patient was not at all willing for an operation."

36. *Iridectomy in Glaucoma.*—Mr. T. WHARTON JONES, in the late edition of his *Treatise on the Principles and Practice of Ophthalmic Medicine and Surgery*, gives, we conceive, a just estimate of the over-vaunted operation of iridectomy for the cure of glaucoma. He observes:—

"Iridectomy is commonly said to operate beneficially by removing intraocular distension, and thus relieving the retina and ciliary nerves from pressure. No doubt it appears to produce some such effect, but how does it operate in removing the intraocular distension? is the question.

"On the assumption that the surface of the iris is the principal source whence the aqueous humour is exuded, iridectomy has been said to remove intraocular distension by diminishing the extent of the exuding surface, and thus setting a limit to the accumulation of aqueous humour. We have, however, seen that whatever good iridectomy may do in the way of diminishing intraocular distension, it cannot be by removing a source of the aqueous humour, because we have shown (p. 150) that the iris has little, if any, share in secreting aqueous humour. And it is evident that if it had, the removal of so small a portion of that membrane would not be likely to produce any great impression on the quantity of aqueous humour exuded. We have, moreover, seen that in glaucoma the intraocular distension is not owing to an increase in the quantity of aqueous humour, but that, on the contrary, it has its seat in the posterior segment of the eyeball.

"An opinion has been expressed to the effect that iridectomy, by establishing a larger and freer communication between the two chambers of the aqueous

humour, promotes the diminution of intraocular distension. The force of this opinion, however, I cannot see, even supposing what has just been denied, that the distension has its seat in the aqueous chambers.

"In reviewing our case in order to discover what can be ascertained from it in explanation of the *modus operandi* of iridectomy, we must not overlook the effect of the preliminary section of the cornea, and the evacuation of the aqueous humour that takes place, in relieving the tension of the eyeball at the time. We all know what relief to tension is elsewhere afforded by an incision through a fascia investing a congested or inflamed part; and although undue accumulation of aqueous humour is not, as we have seen, a cause of the distension of the eyeball in glaucoma, still the evacuation of the aqueous humour must contribute for so much to the relief of the distension. * * *

"We have seen that it is in acute glaucoma that most benefit to sight is derived from iridectomy. This effect, such as it is, must, in my opinion, be looked for in the circumstance that the disease not having been of long standing, the retina may not as yet have suffered material organic change, and, therefore, is still capable of resuming to some extent its function on being relieved from pressure by the subsidence of the inflammatory congestion, and the consequent absorption of superabundant fluid in the posterior segment of the eyeball.

"Although by iridectomy, the inflammation was, in the case of acute glaucoma under notice, subdued and the sight somewhat improved, there was not a restoration of what may be called *good sight*. In chronic glaucoma, the result of iridectomy is much less favourable. We have only to look through the table of cases in the Ophthalmic Hospital Reports (No. 10, January, 1860), to be satisfied of the inefficiency of the operation in chronic glaucoma.

"It is thus perceived how unfounded the claim is which has been set up for iridectomy as an unconditional cure for glaucoma.

"The operation, however, proves a useful auxiliary in the treatment of arthritic posterior internal ophthalmia, or, as it has been called, acute glaucoma. And here it may be said, *remedium anceps melius quam nullum*.

"We have seen that there are certain symptoms premonitory of glaucomatous failure of sight. In such a case, iridectomy has been especially recommended as a prophylactic of the threatened mischief.

"If, under such circumstances, it should be thought warrantable to propose the operation, we ought to do so only with great reserve, as we cannot truly give our patient an assurance that the operation will have the desired effect of preserving his sight.

"That iridectomy and extraction of the lens combined may not permanently secure the eye against an attack of acute glaucoma, was shown by a case of cataract I treated in the hospital some years ago. The patient was a woman about sixty years of age, and the eyes were at the time otherwise quite healthy. I performed extraction on one eye, and in making the section of the cornea, the iris, in consequence of a premature escape of the aqueous humour, fell before the edge of the knife, and a very considerable piece of it was cut out. The lens was easily extracted, and the case did well. The eye, indeed, recovered so rapidly that the patient was able to leave the hospital within ten or eleven days after the operation. Having been fitted with cataract glasses, the woman enjoyed capital sight, and continued to do so for some two or three years. At the end of that time, she one day presented herself at the Eye Infirmary, complaining that the sight of the eye was totally gone. She stated that the eye had been inflamed for some ten days past, and that she had been suffering severe pain in the head all that time.

"On examination, I found the eye—the eye on which both iridectomy and extraction had been performed—hopelessly glaucomatous.

"Suppose this patient had been seen earlier in the attack, would a second iridectomy have saved the eye? It is not likely; but if so, it is evident that the eye could not bear much further repetition of it, for the good reason that there would be at last little of the iris remaining to cut away.

"This suggests the question, Are persons with congenital absence of the iris liable to glaucoma? Such persons are rare, and I have never seen one affected

with glaucoma exactly, though I have seen one attacked with internal inflammation of the eye of somewhat arthritic character, after an operation for cataract. This was the case above mentioned (p. 150), in which, after *paracentesis corneæ*, the aqueous humour was as quickly and completely regenerated as usual. I do not, however, suppose that congenital absence of the iris offers any immunity against glaucoma. If so, what could an iridectomist do in case of an attack?"

37. *Von Graefe's Eye Clinic.*—Dr. A. SAMELSON, of Manchester, has published (*British Medical Journal*, March and April, 1866) his "Reminiscences of Four Months' Stay with A. Von Graefe in Berlin."

Dr. Samelson's description of the hospital building would not lead us to infer that it possesses the hygienic advantages which are usually deemed desirable; and if to this we add the statement that general remedies are held to be of little value, there seems to be abundant ground for surprise that the results of treatment should be so successful as they are claimed to be.

"The edifice of Von Graefe's Eye-Clinique," says Dr. S., "is a corner house, in the main three-storied; but a small portion of the back façade, going by the name of the "small house," consists of two stories only. The block, as it appears at present, is a combination of three houses, none of which was originally planned for the purposes of a hospital; and, as there has never been a thorough reconstruction, the interior is of almost bewildering intricacy. In most parts of the building, the sick-rooms are opposite each other, divided by a narrow passage, and looking into the street or into the yard respectively. The rooms are heated, each separately, by means of the customary German stove, constructed of glazed tiles, and standing in a corner of the room. The stairs, passages, and some of the dwelling-rooms, are lighted with gas; in the sick-rooms candles are used. There is no artificial system of ventilation; but the building is provided with pipe-water and with water-closets in all its stories. These latter are far from being *cabinets inodores*, owing chiefly to an overwhelming stench of tobacco—a nuisance the toleration of which is the more surprising, as persons of both sexes are compelled to resort to these abominable places. There is only one bath in the whole building. None of the rooms are without double windows and weather-blinds—the latter made of strong linen twill, and moving between the two windows. Every door is edged throughout with list of woollen cloth. The curtains, the inner blinds, and the bed-screens are all of dark blue merino; the folding candle-screens are of green silk. On the ground-floor there are no more than four or five sick-rooms for private patients; there is, besides, the diphtheritic ward, consisting of a few small rooms. The remainder is occupied by the clinical department on the one side; the porter's room, the inspector's dwelling-rooms, and the patients' assembly-rooms, on the other. The kitchen, presided over by a male cook, is under-ground, where also some of the male servants are accommodated.

"The clinique affords accommodation for upwards of one hundred patients.

* * * * *

"The private sick-rooms, about fifty in all (there being some in the first story, rented for the purpose, of a house opposite the clinique), are of various proportions, a small number of them being narrow and one-windowed only; by far the majority are on the first floor. Each contains, for the most part, one bed only; and the office of this has, in the smaller rooms, to be performed by the sofa, inside which the bedding is placed during the day. The furniture—mahogany, and fully sufficient—is pretty uniform in all the rooms. * * *

"The remedial agencies in which trust is here placed are few in number. Internal remedies, as we have said before, are little in request; for specific purposes mercury and the iodide of potassium—the latter often in combination with iodide of mercury—are appreciated. The preferred method for mercurialization is inunction. Of late, the Turkish bath has become a favourite resource, apparently for alterative purposes generally. Aperients do not seem

¹ Iodide of potassium $\mathfrak{z}\text{j}$; iodide of mercury gr. vj ; water $\mathfrak{z}\text{ij}$. A teaspoonful to be taken in the morning.

often to be thought necessary. For the ordination of quinine there is much less occasion than we find in this country. (Altogether, the out-patients, as regards appearance and intelligence, are of a different cast; as the national wealth of Prussia is yet far from the standard of England, so her national misery, if it ever should come to rival, has not yet attained to British dimensions.) A combination of camphor and carbonate of ammonia is occasionally, at the clinique, ordered for the same purposes for which here the more expensive quinine is prescribed. Blisters are but sparingly made use of, and issues all but ignored. General depletion appears to be entirely abandoned. Local bleeding is, in the inflammatory condition following operations, utterly repudiated; and, in acute disease generally, very little resorted to. Contrariwise, in congestive conditions, especially those so frequently attending amblyopic disease, extensive use is made of *Heurteloup's artificial leech*, with the application of which a special surgical assistant is intrusted at the clinique. The eye-douche continues to be held in deserved esteem. There are, further, the multitudinous orders for the various refracting-glasses, either spherical or cylindrical; a kindred resource is the prismatic glass in muscular asthenopia, etc. * * *

"Atropia, as it were the staff of ophthalmology, is extensively resorted to; but we were gratified to find much discretion observed in its use. Correspondingly, those tedious and obstructive conjunctival and erysipelatous affections consequent on its administration appear to be comparatively rare. The application is made with the brush.

"Of the remedies directly applied to the palpebral conjunctiva, the solution of the absolutely neutral, and thence so inoffensive, acetate of lead (generally one drachm to the ounce) and the nitrate of silver stick, mitigated by the admixture of double the quantity of nitrate of potash, are in the order in which they are here named by far the most frequently employed. The light-handed touch, the circumspect restriction of the remedy to the really affected locality, and the singularly painstaking ablution (with water in the case of lead, with a solution of chloride of sodium first and then with water in the case of the caustic) must, in our opinion, be ranked among the characteristic features of the treatment here bestowed. The mitigated lapis seems to have almost superseded the sulphate of copper so much in request some twelve years since, when we attended this clinique. However, when used, the sulphate of copper crystal is here employed in a very elegant form, viz: carefully ground into pointed cones which are fixed in a crayon-holder—to be obtained, like the other articles mentioned above, from the wholesale house of Mr. Simon, Spandauer Strasse. The use of the unalloyed lunar caustic is almost limited to the purpose of obliterating the lachrymal passages; for a similar end the nitrate of silver is, in suitable cases, also employed in the form of small silver probes or of bougies coated with the salt. Other favourite topical administrations, partly of recent introduction, are the inspersions of calomel, the application of liquor chlori, and especially that of Pagenstecher's amorphous oxide of mercury ointment—all these in fascicular or phlyctenular kerato-conjunctival affections; the latter excellent remedy (which is regularly removed from the eye again after a few minutes), also in subconjunctival circumcorneal inflammation. The tincture of opium is considered by Von Graefe as a specific in the *dry* form of conjunctivitis. Amongst the derivatives might still have been mentioned the frequent application, but lightly made, of the mitigated lapis or the concentrated lead vinegar (solution of basic acetate of lead) to the cutaneous surface of the upper lid; but, above all, the almost stereotyped use, in acute inflammation attended with more or less intolerance of light, for inunction to the forehead, of Arit's salve, containing the extract of belladonna and the white precipitate of mercury in varying doses (in most cases respectively one and two parts to twelve of fat). In the administration of this ointment, it is not the specific action of the ingredients which is sought; the remedy appears, in the main, to be intended as a sedative and counterirritant, and is usually directed to be applied in tolerably large quantity from six to eight times a day. The practice of ordering bulky lotions does not prevail at the clinique; the most frequent prescription is that of two drachms of the acetum plumbi, of which a few drops mixed with a few ounces of water furnish a lead lotion to the patient which he may thus fre-

quently renew for himself. Of very general extemporaneous employment are the elegantly prepared glycerine and starch ointments (Simon's), with their admixtures of sulphate of atropia or acetate of lead or nitrate of silver. Tar is another local application ever at hand for cases of exanthematous lid-affection.

"We conclude this survey of the pharmacological armoury with a reference to some of the principal instruments of treatment relied upon by Von Graefe. Sustained pain after operation is invariably met by the subcutaneous injection of morphia; iced compresses are the chief remedy opposed to the diphtheritic process during its yet unbroken severity, and are likewise resorted to when cutaneous inflammation rises to an excessive height. But the great adjuvant in the subjugation of danger, or in the conquest of a partial effect at least, is the systematic use of *compression*, in many instances alternating with warm chamomile fomentations, of a temperature regulated in accordance with the requirements of the cases. It is this latter method of proceeding matured to its present perfection by the thoughtful and assiduous study of many years, and ever and anon, in the individual cases, practised with unswerving vigilance, which, in our opinion, again constitutes one of those patent secrets of success attending the practice of a master of the healing art."—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, March 24, 1866.

38. *Von Graefe's Treatment of Affections of the Conjunctiva and Cornea.*—Dr. A. SAMELSON says, that "in the ordinary form of conjunctivitis, weak solutions of nitrate of silver and acetate of lead are the applications widely preferred" by Von Graefe; "the latter as an eye-drop of the strength of two grains to the ounce. The abortive treatment by means of the strong solution of nitrate of silver appears much less in favour than it was at this clinique in former times. Applications containing the sulphate of zinc or of copper are more rarely, and the bichloride of mercury still less frequently, employed. Alum or borax are reserved for the convalescent period of the affection. Tincture of opium is considered the specific remedy for a form of conjunctivitis, apparently of not unfrequent occurrence, which is characterized by much redness, but only moderate swelling, of the mucous membrane, with considerable pain of a grating or pressing nature, and by the absence of discharge.

"To the treatment of *phlyctenular conjunctivitis* we have adverted before.

"*Trachoma* is treated, as the cases require, now with the neutral acetate of lead in solution or in glycerine ointment, now with nitrate of silver, either in the form of glycerine ointment or of the mitigated pencil. A sulphate of copper ointment is occasionally ordered for home use. The application of acetate of lead in substance is deprecated.

"In *blepharorrhœa neonatorum*, the sovereign remedy is the mitigated caustic; scarification seems scarcely to be practised any more; implication of the cornea is met by sustained instillation of atropine; while corneal perforation is, on the whole, dealt with in the same manner as we shall presently see it treated in ocular diphtheria. The principal measures resorted to in this latter pernicious affection, which now appears never to die out entirely at Berlin, are, the transfer of the patient to a separate ward, rigorous occlusion by collodion-dressing of the sound eye, if one only be affected, and unremitting application of iced compresses. Incisions of the stiffly infiltrated mucous membrane are utterly repudiated. It is most rare for the cornea to escape implication, whilst in some cases it is doubtless idiopathically affected. When perforation, as is the rule, has taken place, the most thorough levelling of the ulcer is considered indispensable; the mitigated nitrate of silver is applied to the conjunctivæ of both lids (if their already more soaked condition warrants its use), and atropine is instilled; the morbid substance projecting from the ulcer is unsparingly removed with scissors; and this proceeding is repeated daily, so long as there is any occasion for it. Contingently, the lens, if pressing forward, is let out; and often some vitreous body is cut away in addition. This course alone is found to avail in rescuing whatever little can be saved. Out of many cases witnessed, we shall relate the following.

"In a girl, two years old, who was said to have been brought to the clinique

with both corneæ yet intact, whose left eye was now, however, already lost, and whose skin, near the outer angle of each eye, was affected with diphtheritic patches, the palpebral conjunctiva of the right eye was quite stiff and smooth—*i. e.*, in that condition which does not yield to cauterization; and the cornea was perforated at the bottom. On eversion of the lids, the iris protruded—vascularized, infiltrated, a fleshy mass. Under chloroform, an incision was made with a Beer's knife through the protruded iris, and scissors were employed for the removal of the prolapse, when the capsule came into view, which was now opened with the cystitome. The eye being already less in size than its fellow, the exit of the lens had to be promoted by pressure with the curette, and, this unavailing, by slight dilatation of the corneal opening with the knife. After the evacuation of the lens, some of the vitreous body was removed three or four times with scissors. Fully the upper half of the cornea was yet preserved; the eye looked rather more promising after the operation; yet scarcely any hope was held out. Von Graefe then applied the compressive bandage, which, in such conditions, is regularly employed in alternation with tepid chamomile fomentations. Death, which in most instances closes the scene, is looked upon as the only consolation in these distressing cases."—*Reminiscences of a Four Months' Stay with Prof. A. Von Graefe, in Brit. Med. Journ.*, April 14, 1866.

39. *Treatment of Pannus.*—According to Dr. SAMELSON Dr. Graefe esteems two proceedings for the relief of pannus; viz., peritomy and iridectomy. Inoculation is well-nigh abandoned, owing to its results having been unpropitious in Von Graefe's hands; though he is far from discrediting the more fortunate experience of others, particularly Belgian ophthalmologists, with whom different conditions appear to favour the enterprise. Peritomy is not unfrequently practised; only a small ring of conjunctiva is removed, and the caustic, as originally recommended by Furnari, is dispensed with. The effects obtained are moderate. Of great interest we thought the insistence upon iridectomy, as necessitated in a good many cases of pannus by the coexisting slow iritis, which is very apt to be overlooked, yet, while it lasts, robs of their effectiveness whatever measure may be adopted.—*Ibid.*

40. *Dermoid Tumours.*—These, Dr. SAMELSON states, are not unfrequently seen, at Graefe's clinic, mostly astride on the corneo-scleral frontier, are successfully removed by dissection, which is not generally found necessary to be thorough.—*Ibid.*

41. *Syphilitic Affections of the Eye.*—MM. QUAGLINO and SCARENZIO arrive at the following conclusions from a number of observations.

1. Though there are no characteristic signs of syphilitic retinitis, it may be affirmed that the disease in the majority of cases affects the entire field of the optic papilla, the surrounding portion of the retina, and the yellow spot. The contour of the papilla frequently presents masses of black pigment, giving it an irregular appearance, and apparently due to proliferation of the pigment-cells of the choroid. Syphilitic retinitis frequently terminates in pigmentary degeneration and atrophy of the retina to a greater or smaller extent, in atrophy of the retinal vessels and of the nervous substance of the papilla, and in lesion of the posterior aspect of the retina, characterized by a reflection of a grayish or ashy colour, most apparent in the course of the vessels. In severe cases, the choroid may be attacked, giving rise to the formation of yellowish serous and lymphatic exudation, loss of pigment, and compression of the retina, with atrophy of the columnar layer. In such cases, the pigment-cells of the choroid are infiltrated into the meshes of the atrophied retinal tissue, and constitute the peculiar alteration termed pigmentary retinitis; the pigment may in this way be spread over the whole surface of the retina, and even over the optic papilla. When the amaurosis produced by syphilitic retinitis is secondary to the extension of a morbid process from the iris to the choroid and retina, it is impossible, although the papilla be still free, to examine the fundus of the eye, in consequence of the presence of grayish false membranes, and of the dulness

of the superficial layers of the crystalline lens. Syphilitic retinitis and choroiditis, as well as iritis, are developed most frequently in an advanced stage of the constitutional affection, and belong to the secondary as well as to the tertiary phenomena.

2. In most cases, the functional symptoms of syphilitic retino-choroiditis are the following. *a.* There are asthenopia, trembling and uncertain vision, photophobia, visions of globes of fire or black spots, chromatopsy or pseudo-chromatopsy, and *muscæ volitantes*. *b.* There is a gradually increasing weakness of the power of vision. *c.* The field of vision becomes progressively limited from the circumference until it is limited to a narrow space. Frequently also obscurity commences in the centre of the field of vision. In either case, sight may remain limited, or may extend little by little. *d.* The hemeralopia which is often observed in cases of degeneration or pigmentary infiltration of the retina in syphilitic subjects, is a phenomenon which appears very late, and appears to be the effect of loss of sensibility in the retina and progressive atrophy of the papilla. *e.* If constitutional syphilis have produced periostitis of the orbit or a swelling implicating the filaments of the fifth pair of nerves, the patient experiences, independently of impaired vision, violent supraorbital neuralgia, with nocturnal exacerbations; exophthalmia may even be produced: there is then a severe almost constant pain in the temporal and frontal regions. The motor nerves alone may be attacked.

3. These affections have generally a very slow, often irregular course.

4. In the early period of syphilitic retinitis, antiphlogistics and resolvents are employed with advantage, especially if symptoms of inflammation be present. When these are absent, the simple fact of impairment of vision in a syphilitic subject indicates the use of a specific treatment—mechanical friction, iodide of potassium, etc. Tonics should be added, if there are threatenings of atrophy of the retina. Under such treatment, patients have almost entirely recovered sight.

5. Cure is no longer possible when atrophy of the retina actually exists. Other nerves than the optic may, when affected, return more readily to their normal state, by reason of their structure being less complicated. If the retina be slightly obscured, but the columnar layer remain intact, there will be only impairment of vision for distant objects.—*British Med. Journ.*, Feb. 10, 1866, from *Gaz. Méd. de Paris*, November 11, 1865.

MIDWIFERY.

42. *Causes of the Position of the Fœtus*.—Prof. von SCANZONI, of Würzburg, sums up a paper on the causes of the frequency of the head-presentation in the human fœtus, with the following conclusions. 1. The frequency of the cranial position of the embryo during pregnancy is not explained by Simpson's theory of reflex movements of the fœtus; nor, as alleged by Dubois, by its instinctive movements; nor by the hypothesis of Carus, according to which the fœtus lives a mere vegetable life within the uterus. 2. The position of the fœtus is dependent on the operation of various circumstances: viz., *a*, the force of gravitation; *b*, the form of the uterine cavity; *c*, the form of the fœtus; *d*, the quantity of amniotic fluid; *e*, the contractions of the uterus during pregnancy and the first stage of labour; and *f*, the active movements of the fœtus. 3. Up to the time when the placenta is developed, the embryo may assume any position, vertical or horizontal, in the cavity. 4. Immediately after the formation of the placenta, the fœtus is suspended at its lower end by a very short umbilical cord to the upper part of the uterus, and the large heavy head hangs downwards. 5. This position may, in favourable circumstances, be maintained during the whole of pregnancy; but much more frequently it undergoes changes into other positions, from which, as a rule, a return is finally made to the head-presentation. 6. The first of the causes influencing the position of the fœtus is the rapid

growth of the umbilical cord, which becomes even longer than the uterus, and thus is no longer capable of retaining the lower part of the body of the fœtus in the upper part of the uterus. 7. The fœtus may nevertheless constantly retain a vertical position with the head directed downwards, since the centre of gravity falls within the large head, and the relatively large quantity of amniotic fluid keeps the fœtus floating until the middle of pregnancy, so that the heaviest part gravitates towards the lowest part of the circumference of the uterus. 8. About the middle of pregnancy, in consequence of the rapid development of the body of the fœtus, the centre of gravity falls from the head to the upper part of the thorax, and changes the gravitative relations of the fœtus. 9. If at the same time, as usually is the case, the uterus grows more in its longitudinal than in its transverse diameter, its walls retain the fœtus in the vertical position; since it has become too long for its long diameter to find room in the transverse diameter of the uterus. 10. But if the uterine cavity become more roomy, the head may be inclined to either side, so that an oblique or even a transverse position may be assumed. 11. As the fœtus increases further in growth, the quantity of amniotic fluid diminishes in proportion to the size of the fœtus, and, if the lateral walls of the uterus be not unusually yielding, the fœtus is compelled to resume a vertical position. 12. If the head have hitherto remained the deepest part, it will be the point which in the perpendicular portion of the uterus comes most readily over the os uteri. 13. When the fœtus lies transversely, the manner in which the child presents depends partly on the resistance of the uterine walls, partly on the active movements of the fœtus induced by this resistance, but especially on the occurrence of contractions in the uterus. 14. In the transverse position, the head generally lies lower than the breech: this, and the circumstance that the centre of gravity of the fœtus lies nearer to the head than to the pelvic extremity, render it plain how, when the pressure exercised by the sides of the uterus on the head and breech of the fœtus becomes troublesome, the head is directed downwards more readily than upwards when the fœtus assumes the perpendicular position. 15. The action of the uterine contractions on the transversely lying fœtus varies, according as the contractions originate in single parts of the uterus or over the whole organ. 16. Partial contractions, as a rule, set in most strongly at the points of the uterine wall which are in immediate contact with the head and breech of the fœtus; they act directly on the fœtus, and, if it be only moderately movable, very readily bring it into the vertical position; and the head, generally lying lower, enters the strait of the pelvis more readily than the breech, the expulsion of which requires a more complicated mechanism than that of the head. 17. The contractions extending over the whole uterus act most directly on the pelvic end of the fœtus, which is usually directed upwards, even in the oblique and transverse positions. If the lower section of the uterus contract powerfully, this circumstance may, in spite of the downward pressure exerted on the breech by the fundus uteri, succeed in bringing the head nearer to the middle line of the uterus and thus establishing a cranial presentation; and this action is essentially supported and favoured by the greater firmness and power of resistance on the part of the foetal body. 18. If the contraction of the lower section of the uterus be less energetic, and the fœtus be at the same time young, soft, and compressible, the breech, under the simultaneous angular bending of the fœtus, is pressed still more deeply into the abdominal region, the head is pressed still further from the axis of the uterus, and the transverse presentation is thus finally converted into one of the breech or foot. 19. Hence the breech and foot presentations met with in such disproportionate frequency in abortion and premature labour are not primary positions, but are, as a rule, secondary, brought about by the contractions of the fundus uteri. 20. From the observations already made, it appears that the most various influences occurring during pregnancy may give rise to manifold changes of the position of the fœtus, but that nature generally succeeds in bringing the head over the os uteri, where it is usually found lying during the last six or eight weeks of pregnancy. 21. Nevertheless, changes of position are not especially rare even at this late period of pregnancy; and their occurrence is favoured if the quantity of amniotic fluid be great, if the embryonic cavity be roomy, if the uterine walls be yielding, and

the active movements of the fœtus be energetic. The partial contractions of the uterus, which set in more frequently and with greater intensity in the last weeks of pregnancy, also exercise a powerful influence on the position of the fœtus. 22. In entirely normal relations, the deviation of the head after having once entered the pelvis, during the last weeks of pregnancy, is hindered when the quantity of amniotic fluid be remarkably diminished in proportion to the size of the fœtus, so that the size of the amniotic cavity and the mobility of the fœtus is diminished; and also when there is an arrest of the development of the uterine walls, so that the organ is extended by the growing fœtus. But this stretching of the walls of the uterus diminished its yielding power, and, by causing it to envelop the body of the fœtus more closely, renders difficult the occurrence of any important change of position.—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, March 17, 1866, from *Wiener Med. Wochenschrift*, Jan. 20, 1866.

43. *Tetanus of the Uterus.*—Dr. DAVID GORDON related to the Obstetrical Society of Edinburgh (28th Feb. 1866) the case of Mrs. B., æt. 38, the mother of several children. During her pregnancy she had much bearing-down pain; the abdomen was very pendulous and partially supported on the thighs. The veins of the labia and limbs were varicose. The labour was very tedious. She began to complain of pain about 11 o'clock on a Monday night, and she was not delivered till 3 P. M. on the following Thursday, when Professor Simpson applied the forceps, and without much difficulty extracted a living child. To obtain a thorough examination, the patient was deeply chloroformed, and the hand was passed into the vagina through the brim, and fairly beyond the head of the child. The obstructing cause was then discovered. Firmly inclosing the neck of the child there was felt a broad and strong band of uterine fibres in a state of tonic contraction, which effectually prevented the passage of the shoulders through it. Several moderate pulls with the forceps, during the intervals between the pains, sufficed to overcome this obstruction, and delivery was speedily accomplished with perfect safety to mother and child, both of whom have done well. After the birth of the child there was a sharp attack of flooding. In removing the placenta the cord broke, and it became necessary to introduce the hand. The whole of the membranes remained in the uterus, and their removal was very troublesome. The flooding continued for some time, notwithstanding the vigorous use of cold and pressure. It appears to me that this case illustrates very clearly the great utility of chloroform in midwifery practice. Without the aid of such an agent it would have been impossible to make the thorough examination in the course of which the contracted and obstructing band of uterine fibres was discovered encircling the neck of the child and preventing its descent. It also shows that in skilful hands forceps may be applied to the head above the brim and fairly within the cavity of the uterus, without injury to mother or child. And I am confident that the practice, in such circumstances, is much safer than that of turning. This case also reminds us that when labour is retarded by the special cause indicated, the extracting force must not be applied as usual during the pains, but in the intervals between the pains.—*Edinburgh Medical Journal*, April, 1866.

44. *Hæmorrhage from the Uterus.*—Dr. BARNES stated, at a meeting of the Obstetrical Society of London (Feb. 7, 1866) that he continued the practice of injecting a solution of perchloride of iron into the uterus to arrest hæmorrhage after abortion and labour, and with excellent effect. He no longer dreaded flooding as of old. So far he could illustrate by experience the safety of intra-uterine injections. But he thought a more desirable method of applying fluid styptics or caustics to the inner surface of the uterus would be by swabbing—that is, by soaking a bit of sponge or cotton-wool in the liquid, and passing it into the cavity. He had contrived an apparatus for this purpose. An excellent plan of applying solid nitrate of silver was one he had learned from Sir Benjamin Brodie. That eminent surgeon dipped a silver probe in fused nitrate of silver, thus obtaining a thin stratum, which could be passed freely and safely into a sinus. This was the safest way of cauterizing the inner surface of the cervix or body of the uterus.—*Med. Times and Gazette*, March 24, 1866.

45. *Enlargements of the Uterus which follow Abortions, Premature or Natural Confinement.*—Dr. SNOW BECK, in a paper on this subject read before the Obstetric Society of London (Feb. 7, 1866), remarked that these enlargements had been long recognized by pathological anatomists, and quoted some microscopical observations by himself, and communicated to the Medical Society of London in 1851, which showed that the pathological condition essentially consisted in an enlargement of the muscular tissue of the uterus, without the presence of any inflammatory or heterologous deposits. The causes were considered to depend chiefly upon—(1) a want of complete and persistent contraction of the uterus, which permitted an increased circulation of blood in the gravid organ, and interfered with the changes which took place after parturition; and (2) on the partially developed state of the uterine tissue in abortion, which appeared to be unfavourable to the development of those changes necessary to its complete reduction in size. The enlargement of itself gave rise to few and comparatively slight symptoms, unless it existed to such an extent as to be felt as a tumour in the hypogastrium: but it rendered the patient liable to profuse hemorrhages, coming on suddenly and without appreciable cause. These enlargements might exist for many months, or even for some years, without any symptoms of importance; but from the recurrence of the catamenia, or other causes, congestion of the enlarged organ was gradually induced; or congestive inflammation, which may be either of the whole or of any portion of the uterus, might take place, the usual symptoms of uterine affection being then present. Amongst the subsequent changes which took place were anteversion and retroversion, with more or less bending of the organ, which lesions interfered with subsequent impregnation. But a more important change was a gradual hardening of the organ, which reduced it to an indolent state, and rendered it very rebellious to treatment. The modification of the symptoms thus produced was shown by the cases recorded, and the physical examination of the organ detailed. The author found that in these cases the uterus was equally enlarged, smooth, pyriform, the cavity enlarged, and the orifice open. The sound readily passed to an extent varying from three to five or six inches. When inflammation was added the organ became tender, the arteries were felt to beat with more or less force, and the interior became very sensitive. Subsequent and various alterations were made; the lips became enlarged, often lobulated, projecting into the vagina, red and raw in appearance, and bounded by a distinct line, which marked the division between the mucous membrane of the vagina and that of the uterus. It was this condition of the organ which had been so frequently described as ulceration, although no such morbid change actually existed. With respect to the treatment, various cases were recorded showing the importance of injecting the cavity of the uterus with astringent lotions, and the safety with which it could be done, provided the actions of the uterus were perfectly quiescent. The cavity of the uterus being enlarged, and the orifice open, impregnation readily took place, and the physiological changes which followed were decidedly the best means of restoring the organ to the healthy state. Congestion or inflammation, when present, would have to be met by the usual means; and when the uterus was in the hardened, modified condition, in addition to the ordinary means of treatment, it would require some local stimulant to rouse the local action, and enable the other remedies to act. For this purpose cauterizing the lips with potassa cum calce had been generally employed.—*Med. Times and Gazette*, March 24, 1866.

46. *Epithelial Tumours of the Cervix Uteri.*—M. CORNIL remarks on the difficulty of making a diagnosis, by pathological characters, between true cancer and epithelioma of the cervix uteri; and inquiries whether it may not be possible to found an arrangement of the tumours, on such elements of diagnosis as the arrangement of the epithelial cells. In some tumours, the cells are arranged like the acini of glands; and M. Robin calls these tumours heteradenic, and divides them into three varieties, of which M. Cornil retains one, classing the tumours comprised in the two others according to the form of their stroma and epithelium. From an examination of fifty-five cases, he has made the fol-

owing classification : 1. Heteradenic tumours (M. Robin's third variety with or without epidermic globules=18 cases; 2. Epithelial tumours with alveoli visible to the naked eye and cylindrical cells=3 cases; 3. Epithelial tumours having a network of fine meshes and cells of very various forms (the prismatic form predominating)=34 cases.

The following is a succinct account of the characters of these varieties.

1. *Heteradenic Tumours.* The lips of the os uteri—sometimes one alone—are swollen, sometimes everted, and irregular. The tumours are whitish and somewhat transparent, friable under the pressure of the finger, and having a consistence between that of scirrhus and that of encephaloid; on section, the surface is smooth, and presents no milky juice, but yields on pressure small coagula, or white opaque vermiform filaments one or two *millimètres* (sometimes even a *centimètre*) in length, which proceed from cylindrical cavities visible to the naked eye. These filaments are sometimes disposed without order, sometimes parallel, or radiating like a fan in the large projecting *bourgeons* of the tumour. Under the microscope, a section made parallel to the direction of the filaments shows a number of elongated tubes, anastomosing like the tubules of glands, enlarged at parts, and ending in one or more ramifications; these tubes are separated by a thin layer of areolar tissue, or of uterine muscular tissue, and have no special external membrane; they are comprised of cylinders formed of prismatic or pavement nucleated cells, agglutinated by an amorphous granular matter, these cells entirely filling the tubes. When the tubes are cut transversely, they present epithelial cells implanted in a radiating manner in their walls. As to the origin of these nucleated cells, M. Cornil observes that they do not spring from pre-existing glands; and believes that they arise spontaneously, producing in the adult an abnormal gland-formation analogous to that which is physiologically formed in the embryo. As this process of development goes on, the parts first formed undergo certain changes, consisting principally in vesicular, fatty, or epidermic degeneration of the cells, followed by disintegration and ulceration, and finally by putrefaction or gangrene of the tumour.

2. *Epithelial tumours with visible alveoli and cylindrical cells* are characterized by the presence of alveolar cavities, generally visible to the naked eye, followed in the pre-existing tissues, and filled with cylindrical epithelial cells. The tumours are soft, friable like encephaloid, and yield on pressure a milky juice, miscible with water. They differ from heteradenic tumours in the presence of fluid, in the absence of tubes and of globular epidermic cells, and in the characters of the alveoli; they are distinguished from encephaloid by the presence of cylindrical cells and by the presence of newly formed alveolar tissue.

3. *Epithelial tumours having a network of fine meshes and cells of various forms, principally prismatic.* This is the most common variety of epithelial uterine tumour. It presents to the naked eye the characters of encephaloid; and, microscopically examined, differs from the two varieties already described, in the formation of a layer of connective tissue, supporting the vessels and forming alveolar cavities, generally microscopic, and filled with epithelial cells. These cells are free, and may be removed, in the form of a milky fluid miscible with water, by pressure, or by scraping a section of a tumour with the back of a scalpel. The elements found in the fluid are: 1. Ovoid nuclei of greater or less size, having a thick membrane and a large nucleolus—these are considered, by those who hold that the elements of cancer are specific, as characteristic of carcinoma; 2, prismatic cells containing ovoid nucleus, and generally also a nucleolus; 3, fibro-plastic cells; 4, spherical cells containing large nuclei; 5, mother-cells with several nuclei, etc.; 6, cells undergoing fatty degeneration; 7, white globules.

M. Cornil has never observed the disease to become generalized in the first two varieties, while he has noticed it to do so in five cases of the third. Independently of such results as peritonitis, inflammation of the bladder and urethra have been amongst the most frequent complications. In six cases out of thirty-two of the third variety, tubercular disease of the lungs was also present.—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, Sept. 23, 1865, from *Journ. de l'Anat. et de la Physiol.*

HYGIENE.

47. *Means for the Ready and Simple Purification of Water.*—Mr. THOMAS SPENCER has discovered that the black oxide of iron frees water from nearly all its organic impurities. He was led to this discovery by studying the natural purification of water during its percolation of the soil. He found that sands which contained the black or magnetic oxide of iron purified the water which was filtered through them, and that sands which did not contain this substance had no appreciable effect.

Magnetic or black oxide of iron as obtained for medicinal purposes is unsuited for use, not only on pecuniary grounds, but because of its finely-divided state. By heating native carbonate of iron, or spathose iron ore, magnetic oxide is obtained in a suitable condition, but not cheaply enough for application on the large scale. Mr. Spencer obtains it by heating together hæmatite, or red oxide of iron ore, with sawdust. The oxide as made by his process contains a small percentage of carbon. The use of this carbon is, he states, to render the substance harder and less brittle.

In the state in which it is used it is in the form of coarse black grains, which are strongly attracted by a magnet. Its commercial name is "magnetic carbide."

Now, if ordinary river water, even the more impure kinds of it, are made to percolate a layer of magnetic carbide some inches thick, it is not only filtered, as it would be by passing through a similar layer of gravel or sand, but *it is deprived of much of its soluble organic impurities*. According to Mr. Spencer, water containing several grains of organic matter by filtering through a sufficient layer of magnetic carbide loses nearly the whole of it, containing, after its filtration, only about half-a-grain or less of organic matter. The effects of passing the water supplied by the London companies through a domestic filter containing a layer of this substance is certainly very striking. In a few minutes the water passes through the filter, and when compared with some of the water which has not been purified in this way a great difference is observed. Not only is it remarkably bright, but it is found to have lost its previous yellowish colour, and to be free from smell or taste of any kind. But more than this, if a few drops of solution of permanganate of potash are added to the water, the pink colour thus given to the water will be found to be unchanged when the water, which has not been purified by this process will have wholly destroyed the colour of permanganate of potash similarly employed.

Lastly, the crowning property of the black oxide of iron, or magnetic carbide of Mr. Spencer, is that it suffers no perceptible diminution in its power by time and use. In the waterworks at Southport, in Lancaster, it has been in use for seven years without showing any diminution in power, and in domestic filters in use for the same period the same is stated to be the case, although the purifiers have not once been cleansed or refitted. With a filter which Mr. Spencer stated had thus been in use the effects upon water were as striking as in one newly fitted.

Another way in which water may be purified, probably well known to most of our readers, is that of Mr. Condy. The solutions of permanganate of potash and other bases when added to water soon oxidize organic matters, sulphuretted hydrogen, and other oxidizable bodies which may undesirably be present in water. The quantity necessary for the purpose is so exceedingly small that the alkali introduced into the water is of no importance, while the manganese is converted into hydrated peroxide of manganese, which gradually settles down or may be removed by filtration. The permanganate should be added to the water in as large a quantity as the water can deprive of its pink colour on standing for two or three hours after it has been added.

By one of these ways, by using Mr. Spencer's purifying filter or by adding a little of Mr. Condy's solution of a permanganate, and subsequently passing the water through a common filter, those who appreciate the hygienic importance and the luxury of pure drinking water can easily supply themselves with it, albeit the water may have to come from the Thames or other stream similarly polluted.—*Med. Times and Gaz.*, April 28, 1866.

MEDICAL JURISPRUDENCE AND TOXICOLOGY.

48. *Poisoning by Petroleum*.—Dr. MAYER, of Antwerp, relates a case of poisoning by a glass of petroleum, which was drunk in the dark by mistake for a glass of beer. About half an hour afterwards Dr. Mayer found the patient pale, restless, with sunken eyes, strongly contracted pupils, the irides insensible to light, hot dry skin, weak voice, and short quickened respiration. The pulse was excited, hard, incompressible, 60 in the minute, and afterwards fell to 48. (The ordinary number of pulsations in health was 80.) The patient complained of an indescribable feeling of *malaise*, great anxiety, and a sensation of constriction at the diaphragm and in the pharynx. Consciousness was undisturbed. The breath had no odour of petroleum. In spite of the administration of tartar emetic and of tickling the fauces, no vomiting occurred; neither feces nor urine were discharged. After the epigastrium had been rubbed with a flannel dipped in eau de Cologne the patient had eructations, smelling strongly of petroleum, and afterwards vomited copiously undigested food, having the same odour, immediately after which an improvement took place; the pulse became quicker, the skin warmer, the pupils dilated, and the sensibility of the iris to light returned gradually. The vomiting recurred frequently, and always with an odour of petroleum; the patient had a copious stool, slept well through the night, and was quite well the next day. The urine, throughout the whole of the next day, still had a marked odour of violets.

Dr. Mayer remarks that the petroleum appears to have produced total paralysis of the stomach and alimentary canal, so that emetics had no effect, and the food, which was vomited four hours after the poison was taken, showed no traces of digestion. It was only through the stimulation produced by rubbing the epigastrium that vomiting was excited. The retardation of the pulse Dr. Mayer ascribes to the anæsthetic action of the petroleum, which action also shows itself locally in the anæsthesia and paralysis of the digestive canal. The recovery of the patient from so large a dose of the poison may in great measure be attributed to the circumstance that he had previously had a full meal, which thus prevented the petroleum from exerting all its action on the stomach.—*Journal de Bruxelles*, May, 1865.

A case of poisoning by petroleum is recorded also in the *Journal de Chimie Méd.* The patient drank a small glassful of petroleum in a cup of coffee. The symptoms and result are not given. Cases of poisoning by petroleum have been recorded by Weinberger (*Schmid's Jahrb.*, cxxi. 34) and by Clemens (*ibid.*, cxxv. 294).—*Brit. and For. Med.-Chir. Rev.*, April, 1866.

49. *Poisoning by Water-hemlock*.—Dr. LENDER relates a case in which three boys ate of the roots of water-hemlock. In one vomiting set in, by which further symptoms were prevented. The second, who had eaten but little, vomited after some time, and became faint and unconscious, but had no very severe symptoms. The third, who had eaten most, vomited in about an hour; he became insensible and convulsed generally; his respiration became stertorous, and water, tinged with blood, flowed involuntarily from his mouth. Death followed, about three hours after the first appearance of the symptoms. At the *post-mortem* examination the vessels of the brain were found to be remarkably full of blood; there was about an ounce and a half of bloody serum in the pleuræ, and a singular effusion in the pericardium. The costal pleura was injected of a bright red colour; the lungs were hyperæmic, and the trachea and bronchial tubes were injected, of a bright red, and contained reddish mucus. The mucous membrane of the stomach and duodenum was of a dirty dark-red colour, but with spots of injection; the liver, spleen, kidneys and pancreas, were hyperæmic.—*Ibid.*, from *Viertel-Jahrschr. für Gericht. Med.*, 1865.

50. *Poisoning by Atropia*.—The following case, related by Dr. v. SCHMID (*Klin. Monatsbl. für Augenhe.*, 1864), is worthy of record both on account of the serious nature of the symptoms, and with reference to the remarkable efficacy

of subcutaneous injections of morphia. On the morning of the 16th January, the author was called to a man, who, an hour previously, had appeared in perfect health, but now spoke indistinctly and deliriously, although still capable of giving correct answers to questions. He found the patient in a state of fearful excitement, kneeling on his bed, with his head bent down and pressing it into the pillow, as if looking for something. The patient did not appear to recognize him; the tongue was swollen, and projected between the teeth; he incessantly moved it and his lips in a stammering manner, but without emitting a single intelligible word; the eyes were staring; the head was very hot, and the countenance livid; the superficial veins were extremely large, prominent, and serpentine; the pupils were dilated to their utmost degree, and unaffected by light; the pulse was 130, full, and very strong; there was a constant desire, but without the power, to make water; the region of the bladder was very sensitive; there were erections and erotic motions. It took five powerful individuals to place the patient on his back, and keep him in that position. Blood was drawn freely from the arm, and cold lotions were applied to the head, but without any result. Half an hour later some spoonfuls of *infus. sennæ co.* were administered, but were only in part swallowed after great exertions on the part of the patient. After another half-hour, during which the excitement continually increased, and the restlessness had become so great that it was no longer possible to hold him, a fifth of a grain of the acetate of morphia was injected into the cellular tissue of the right temple. In ten minutes he was perfectly quiet, the pulse became smaller, but not slower, and clonic spasms of the extremities appeared. The forearms were rapidly pronated or supinated, and at the same time adducted; in the lower extremities there were twitchings of the muscles. In three-quarters of an hour the pulse was so small that a little wine was administered; it was swallowed with greater ease than the senna mixture; the speech was now more distinct; the feces and urine were involuntarily discharged. The action of the morphia lasted for about an hour; then the wakeful intervals became longer, the slightest noise awakened the patient and excited restlessness; the pulse again rose. As after about two hours the excitement, restlessness, and anxiety had again attained almost their former height, a quarter of a grain of the acetate of morphia was injected into the left temple. The effect was very striking; in seven minutes perfect calm had replaced the greatest excitement; in a quarter of an hour the pulse became smaller, and for the first time slower (120). The patient was awakened only by pressure over the bladder, which did not, however, appear to be distended. During this period the breathing was normal; the patient occasionally changed his position, opened his eyes, looked around, and again fell asleep; the pulse was 110 an hour after the injection. After passing two hours quietly, the desire to make water seemed to awake him, for he at once demanded a chamber-pot, and passed without difficulty, but with two slight pauses, about ten ounces of apparently normal urine. He now recognized the people around, asked many questions in a clear voice—although he still sometimes rambled—was very thirsty, but as soon as the latter desire was relieved by ice, again slept. The glowing heat of the head and body had disappeared; the pulse was, two hours after the injection, 100 and small; the pupils continued in their previous dilated condition. He passed the evening and following night in sleep with a few interruptions, which were sufficiently explained by the desire to pass water, and by four fluid motions. The twitchings of the limbs continued through the night, and to a very slight degree through the next day. The pulse gradually sank till the next morning, when it was 55. His intellect then appeared restored, except that the memory was still somewhat deficient: the latter returned during the day. There then remained only extreme weakness, dryness of the throat, slight twitchings of the limbs, and the dilated pupils. It appears that he had taken at 7.45 in the morning from one-sixth to one-fourth of a grain of atropia in solution.—*Ophthalmic Rev.*, Jan. 1865.

AMERICAN INTELLIGENCE.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

On the Internal Use of Chloroform in Intermittent Fever. By E. McCLELLAN, M. D., Asst. Surgeon U. S. A.

THE strong testimony adduced by Dr. Merrill, in this Journal for October, 1865, in favour of the free use of chloroform as an internal remedy, induced the experimental treatment of a number of cases of intermittent fever with it at Fort Delaware, the results of which are so satisfactory that I feel impelled to add the following account of them to the mass of evidence already accumulated on the subject.

So early as 1832, chloroform was recommended in the treatment of asthma and scarlet fever; since which date it has been from time to time suggested in the treatment of a great variety of diseases. The Dublin hospital reports abound in the record of cases treated with it; and the medical journals for 1854, especially, present such cases in great variety. In the *American Journal* for January of that year, the first extended observations on its internal use were published by Dr. Henry Hartshorne, of Philadelphia. In this paper he so accurately details the *symptoms* and *sensations*, with the *effects* produced by the internal use of this remedy, that, in addition to its merits as the first practical essay on this subject, it leaves very little opportunity for improvement or further observation.

In 1850 chloroform was asserted by Dr. Delionx, of Rochefort, to possess antiperiodic properties. He states, as his experience, that its power is considerable though inferior to that of quinia or arsenic. Although this opinion seems to have been confirmed by the reports of several gentlemen, there is no record of any extended observation made at the time to satisfactorily determine the fact; the reports, therefore, of Dr. Merrill are of great value in determining its specific action when administered during the cold stage of intermittent fever.

In the series of trials of which this paper is the record, it was determined to follow the plan recommended by Dr. Merrill. Chloroform was therefore administered, in all cases, in its pure state, the patient being directed to throw the liquid far into his mouth and to follow it immediately with cold water. In this procedure, alone, does the writer's experience differ from that of Dr. Hartshorne, who recommends that it be largely diluted; but though used as before stated, in no instance did any unpleasant results occur from its contact with the mucous surface. The dose given was a fluidrachm, and was administered as early after the occurrence of the chill as practicable. The immediate effects of its exhibition were, an agreeable sensation of diffused warmth; the subsidence of all pain; the termination of the chill in from eight to fifteen minutes; a refreshing sleep of from one to three hours' duration; and the entire absence of physical prostration, and other distressing sequelæ of the ordinary paroxysm of this disease. In the majority of the cases treated, one fluidrachm was sufficient to produce the full effect; in a very few, one or more repetitions were required at short intervals. The majority of the cases treated were of the tertian variety, but few cases of quotidian having occurred.

The garrison of Fort Delaware, consisting of Batteries "K" and "L" 4th U. S. artillery, furnished sufficient material to test this mode of treatment. Company "K," having served as a light battery in the army of the Potomac, the officers and men were, from the commencement to the termination of the late war, exposed to the malarial influences of the country so often traversed by that army. Upon the cessation of active hostilities, this company was placed in garrison duty in one of the temporary fortifications on the Potomac. Here, in a very short time, the majority of the men were down with intermittent fever. Company "L" having served for three years in the tide-water districts of Virginia, and after the evacuation of Richmond, as a portion of its garrison, the men had suffered severely with the same disease. In October, 1865, these companies became the garrison of this post, and the appended cases were taken from the hospital records.

CASE I. Private R., Co. K, was admitted to hospital October 29, 1865, upon which day he expected the occurrence of the paroxysm. The nurse was directed to notify me immediately upon the attack. I found him in bed, shivering, complaining of severe headache and pains throughout his body—the cold stage fully established. A teaspoonful of chloroform was administered. In a few minutes he experienced an agreeable internal warmth; the surface of his body became less cold, and in seven minutes the chill had subsided; this was followed by a sound sleep of two hours' duration. When he awoke he was, with the exception of a slight headache, perfectly well. A purgative dose of blue mass and colocynth was exhibited, followed by the free use of quinia, which completely arrested the disease.

CASE II. Private L., Co. K, was admitted to hospital November 2, 1865. This patient had suffered from intermittent fever at intervals during the preceding three months. He was emaciated and debilitated, liver torpid, spleen enlarged. He had been repeatedly under medical treatment, but without any lasting effect. On the 3d of the month I found him in a severe chill, which had then lasted for some time. His physical appearance was that of one in a state of collapse; he complained of intense pain, especially in the abdomen; his skin was cold and shrivelled; his pulse was depressed. A fluidrachm of chloroform was administered; in five minutes his pulse became fuller, his breathing less laborious, and the pain of which he complained was subsiding; in fifteen minutes from the first dose—the chill continuing—it was repeated. By this the chill was promptly arrested, and in a short time he was in a sound sleep which lasted for several hours, during which his rate of pulse and external heat were but slightly above the normal state. When he awoke, he was perfectly relieved, and without the nervous prostration from which he had before suffered severely. He was placed upon a stimulating diet and upon quinia; under this he remained free from the disease until the 21st of the month, when, having imprudently exposed himself, he was again received in hospital in the first stage of the paroxysm. A teaspoonful of chloroform was again administered, and in ten minutes the chill was completely arrested. He remained under treatment until December 9, when he was returned to duty, having no recurrence of the chills.

On the 29th of December he was again admitted, and again the chill yielded to the influence of one dose of the chloroform. He was placed upon quinia and small doses of opium at night. This was continued for

twenty days, when he was returned to duty and has since been free from an attack.

CASE III. Corpl. R., Co. K, was admitted November 13, having suffered for two months with intermittent fever. The paroxysm was a mild one, a teaspoonful of chloroform in seven minutes completely arrested the chill, and in one hour the paroxysm had subsided. There was no reappearance of the disease until May 22, 1866, when during an absence from the post on a pass, he was, as he reports, taken with a chill, and was confined to his bed by the attack for ten hours. On the 24th having returned to his company and being on guard, he was, at 11 o'clock A. M., again attacked. When brought to the hospital he had been but a very short time in the cold stage. A fluidrachm of chloroform was administered, the chill gradually subsided and in twenty-three minutes was arrested. The patient, after a sleep of two hours, was perfectly recovered and has since had no return. On this last occasion the dose was not repeated, in order to note the gradual reaction produced by the remedy.

CASE IV.—Corpl. S., Co. K, who was admitted on the 28th of May, had the previous day a severe paroxysm of intermittent fever, attended with great prostration, excessive vomiting, &c, and from the effects of which he had suffered for nearly twelve hours before my attention was called to the case. He was so much prostrated as to be confined to his bed during the 29th, and every precaution was adopted, if possible, to prevent the repetition of the chill on the following day. At 8 o'clock A. M. on the 30th he was again attacked; the chill commencing without any premonitory disturbance, and being attended with all the signs of violent congestion. A fluidrachm of chloroform was administered, which, however, was ejected from the stomach in a few moments; nausea and vomiting having been the earliest symptoms of the attack. In fifteen minutes, no cessation of the chill having taken place, the dose was repeated and partially relieved the nausea and vomiting. In twenty-five minutes, the chill continuing, the dose was again repeated and was followed by the subsidence of the chill. The febrile symptoms came on with vigour. The pulse became full and the eyes suffused. He complained of great headache, no desire to sleep, an inability to compose his mind, great restlessness and a constant sensation of nausea. These symptoms continued for upwards of two hours, after which they gradually subsided. He became composed and his mind hopeful, the only remnant of his late attack being a slight nausea coming on at intervals. The repeated doses in this case produced no inclination to sleep, nor did he experience, beyond the nausea, any of the other symptoms which often follow the excessive use of narcotics. In the evening of the same day he was dressed and moving around the ward. He was placed on full doses of quinia during the subsequent twenty-four hours. On the morning of May 31st, another paroxysm appeared accompanied with the same aggravations as in the previous attacks, though with a marked diminution in their severity. A fluidrachm of chloroform being administered, the effect was prompt and most satisfactory. In twenty minutes the chill was arrested; the patient was shortly in a sound sleep, from which he awoke with no other traces of his illness than nausea and headache which lasted for several hours. This paroxysm was followed by a slight attack of gastritis, which yielded readily to treatment. He was again placed upon the use of quinia; and the disease has been thus far arrested.

CASE V.—Private H., Co. L, who had been subject at intervals during the
No. CIII.—JULY 1866.

past eighteen months to returns of intermittent fever, was admitted May 26, while under the influence of a chill which had commenced at 10 o'clock A. M. A fluidrachm of chloroform was administered in twenty minutes after the onset of the rigors. The chill was arrested in a few minutes, and the paroxysm had disappeared at 12 o'clock M. On the 27th he was again attacked, the chill occurring at 9.30 A. M. He was treated as on the previous day, and at 10 o'clock A. M. the symptoms had entirely subsided. On the 28th the chill recurred at 11.35 A. M., and under the same treatment had disappeared at 12 o'clock M. In this case the chills were decided in their characteristics, although of no severity; and it is notable that in each of the three attacks the second and third stages of the paroxysm seem to have been obliterated by the action of the chloroform.

CASE VI.—Lient. S. attached to Co. K, who had served for several years as an officer of the English army in India, where in 1851 he had several severe attacks of intermittent fever, was seized with a paroxysm October 22d, 1865. His case presented the usual aspect of the disease, but of no unusual severity. A fluidrachm of chloroform was administered; in twelve minutes the chill had subsided, and the patient was in a sound sleep which lasted about three hours. When he awoke, the attack was exhausted. After a free use of quinia the patient remained exempt from the disease until May 20, 1866, when he was again attacked; chloroform was administered with the same results, since which time he has not suffered any trace of the disease.

CASE VII.—Private T., Co. L, had been subject to intermittent fever for four months previous to his admission, April 30, 1866. This man was much debilitated by tertiary syphilis, for which he had been under treatment a length of time. On the 31st the chill began at 4 o'clock A. M.; a fluidrachm of chloroform having been administered, the chill disappeared in ten minutes. During the sleep which followed, the febrile stage occurred with much severity; but, upon the subsidence of the fever, the patient awoke free from all unpleasant symptoms.

In all, thirty-two cases of intermittent fever have been treated with the internal use of chloroform. Those reported are the only cases which have presented points of any interest beyond the cessation of the chill at from five to fifteen minutes after the exhibition of the remedy. In no instance have the slightest unpleasant results appeared. My experience in this respect accords with that of Dr. Hartshorne, that the internal use of chloroform is not attended with the dangers which sometimes attend its inhalation, and that it is a narcotic of the mildest, and yet most powerful character.

The argument afforded, in behalf of chloroform as a remedy in intermittent fever, by the consideration of the reported cases of Dr. Merrill and of the results of its employment in the cases here described, is not that chloroform exerts any antiperiodic influence upon this disease. It is that, without depressing or deranging the nervous force, the internal use of chloroform distributes the effect of this antispasmodic agent on the nerve centres, and thereby obviates for the time the depressing influences of the disease. Hence the benefits derived by the patient are,

1st. That it materially shortens the duration and abates the depressing action of the paroxysm.

2d. That, by being delivered from the physical prostration which must otherwise accompany the attack, the patient is rendered more amenable to treatment for the radical cure of the disease.

Case of Erysipelatous Laryngitis; Laryngotomy; Recovery. By WM. J. WILSON, M. D., M. R. C. S. Edinb., late 13th Ohio Vol. Cavalry, &c., of Macon, Mo.

Col. J—— M——, æt 36, married, of sallow complexion, and having the appearance of a constitution broken down by malarious diseases, was attacked on 13th Dec. 1865, with inflammation of left tonsil. Next day I was called to see him and found considerable external swelling over that tonsil and extending for some three inches down that side of the neck. Internally the tonsil was swollen and of a deep vivid red colour. There was acute pain on pressure and in swallowing, but no difficulty of breathing. Some fever also existed, with a general feeling of malaise. Pulse 96, full and hard. I prescribed hydrarg. submur. gr. vj, immediately followed every two hours by a tablespoonful of the following mixture: R.—Antim. potass tart. gr. iij, sulphat. magnesiae ʒj, aquæ menth. pip. ʒviij. M. I also directed the application of mustard to his throat and the inhalation of the steam of hot water.

Next morning, the 15th, I found him much better, the swelling continuing about the same, but now there was very little pain on pressure or in swallowing. The medicine had operated freely, and together with the inhalation of the steam has caused a copious perspiration. Prescribed the following gargle: R.—Aluminis ʒiss, tinct. capsici ʒiss, mellis despum. ʒj, aquæ ad ʒviij. M. ft. gargarisma—sæpe utend.

On my visit on 16th I found him worse. The external swelling had almost disappeared; the inflammation seemed also to have left the tonsil, but there was now considerable hoarseness and difficulty of breathing. I ordered spt. turpentine to be applied on flannel to his throat, which gave some relief. Saw him again at 1 P. M., when the dyspnœa had increased, but was apparently relieved by the inhalation of steam and the application of turpentine externally. At 5 P. M., finding the dyspnœa still increasing, I sponged the fauces and root of the tongue with a solut. nit. argenti (ʒj ad ʒj). This did very little if any good, and at 6½ P. M. I was sent for with the intelligence that he was dying. I endeavoured to obtain the professional advice and assistance of my friend Dr. E. C. Still, of this place, but he was not at home. On visiting my patient I found him breathing with such difficulty that he evidently could not exist for another half hour without relief. I immediately proposed laryngotomy, which was at once acceded to, and I performed it by making a longitudinal incision 1¼ inch in length over the cryco-thyroid membrane, and dividing the skin, superficial fascia and platysma. I then changed the position of the knife and pushed it horizontally into the trachea through the crico-thyroid membrane. Considerable hemorrhage ensued, but the relief was instantaneous, the air freely rushing in and out through the wound. Dr. Still having at this time arrived, with his assistance I introduced a pair of forceps into the opening and by separating the blades was enabled to insert a tracheotomy tube. The effect of the operation was seen in a few minutes, as in that time he breathed so easily as to be able to lay down in bed. Being rather nervous and in dread of suffocation, he only obtained about two hours' sleep during the night, but next morning felt so well that he was evidently out of danger. The tube was kept in his throat till the morning of the 19th, when finding that he could breath quite easily with the tube closed by his finger, I removed it and closed the wound by strips of isinglass plaster; these I next day changed for a pretty thick coating of collodion, which by its contraction on evaporation drew the edges of the wound closely in con-

tact and it healed readily in a few days. An erysipelatous rash at this time began to appear, spreading from the wound, over the right side of neck, head, and forehead. This was painted with tinct. iodine; and the carbonate of ammonia in fluid ext. cinchona was administered internally, when this rash soon disappeared. A rather troublesome attack of neuralgia of the right frontal nerve followed, which was some little relieved by quinia and tinct. ferri mur.; but this being changed to a mixture of quinia and strychnia, he soon recovered, and in the course of three weeks after the operation was able to attend to his ordinary business, and has since continued perfectly well.

This case from the very first I now look upon as one of erysipelatous inflammation—beginning as an erysipelatous inflammation of the tonsil, suddenly disappearing and attacking the larynx, producing that affection described as “erysipelatous laryngitis.” This diagnosis is confirmed by the previous bad constitutional habit of the patient, the sudden disappearance of all inflammation, and external swelling from the tonsil, and the occurrence of the erysipelatous attack afterwards. Had I even imagined the disease at first to be of an erysipelatous nature, my treatment would have been a different one to the antiphlogistic course pursued, but it was only on the 16th that the larynx began to be affected, and the symptoms crowded one another so closely that day that the operation was urgently called for. Having made up my mind as to its necessity, I did not hesitate for a moment, well knowing that time was invaluable, and that in ten or fifteen minutes more the lungs would have become so much engorged that they would not have been able to recover themselves after the operation. I was forced to the conclusion in this case that all the remedies mentioned in the different text-books, with the exception of laryngotomy, are useless, and worse than useless, as valuable time is lost in their employment.

Laryngotomy is by no means a dangerous operation, provided it be performed before the lungs become much engorged, and should another similar case present itself, I should, the moment I satisfied myself of its nature, and saw the breathing becoming more difficult, propose the operation at once as the only treatment on which the least reliance can be placed. In no one of our authors is there much said about the mode of healing the wound left after the operation. I think no substance can be employed with more satisfactory results than collodion, as it draws the edges of the wound closely together by its evaporation and contraction and maintains them in contact, and it does not absorb any of the mucus which may escape or be forced through the wound.

Sycosis Menti cured by the Sulphite of Soda. By CHARLES M. MATSON, M. D., of Brookville, Jefferson County, Pa.

C. M.—, aged 24, consulted me, January 11, 1866, for *sycosis menti*, which extended over his chin, the sides of his face, and upper lip. Having noticed, a short time before, the case reported in the January No. of the *American Journal of the Medical Sciences*, 1866, by Dr. Dale, cured by sulphite of soda, I determined to further test the efficacy of the sulphite in this obstinate disease. I used Dr. Dale's prescription—Soda sulphit. gr. xl, aquæ ʒij, glycerinæ ʒj—and so rapidly did the cure follow that in eight days not a trace of the disease was discovered. It is now three months since the cure was effected, and up to this time there have been no symptoms of a return.

Chronic Diarrhoea of Nine Years' Duration cured by Strychnia. By CHARLES C. SHOYER, M. D., of Leavenworth, Kansas.

D. P——, a merchant, had from three to nine passages daily; they were liquid, feculent, and of good colour. He had little or no control over the sphincter, and his feces were frequently voided into his pants; so frequently was this the case that he was obliged to forsake society in a measure; he could not pass flatus without also voiding feces. His health suffered greatly, though his appetite was good at times. He could never defer an evacuation a moment, day or night. Viewing the case as depending upon a loss of tone in the muscular wall of the intestines, I determined to try strychnia, and gave it as follows, until its physiological action became apparent, premising that I also gave quinia and iron to build up the system: R.—Strychniæ gr. j, acid. acetic. gtt. x, alcohol ℥ss, tr. cinchonæ c. q. s. ut ft. ℥ij. S. a teaspoonful three times a day. Before ten days the number of evacuations was reduced to three or four a day; the patient had recovered complete control of the sphincter; as, for instance, being in bed about 10 P. M., he felt an inclination for stool, and restrained it without effort until next morning at 8 A. M. In less than eight weeks the cure was perfect, and the patient has taken no medicine for upwards of four weeks and has only two evacuations daily of good consistence; attends to his business, has a good appetite, and has gained considerable flesh. The remedy was pushed until its physiological effects were evident, and continued so until the case was completed. I have more voluminous notes of the case, but as they in no way alter the above history, do not trouble you with them.

P. S.—The patient is thirty years old, and attributes his disease to taking drastic cathartics for constipation.

Intra-Orbital Aneurism treated by Compression. By CLARKSON FREEMAN, M. D., President of the Halton Medical Association, Milton, Canada West.

March 1st, 1861, I was consulted by Wm. Elliott, æt. 61 for an aneurismal tumour situated within and on the inner or nasal side of the left orbit, characterized with a distinct whizzing bruit and also a strong pulsation when the finger was pressed against its elastic or cyst-like envelope. About November, 1860, he states he had a pain in the under part of the eyeball, which soon disappeared and gave no trouble until the first of January following, when both eyes became swollen, with pain in forehead, and left nostril has been stopped up ever since. There was a uniform swelling around the left eye only until some time in February, when the eyeball began and continued to project to the left side. Has double vision, and the two objects now appear to be more separated than at first; can see better without his glasses with his left eye than with them with the right. Has slight stiffness or numbness of the left cheek, and cannot breathe freely through left nostril, and when on his right side both nostrils are closed. Has no pain now, but experiences a stuffing, as if from a cold; sleeps well and has a good appetite.

I treated this case by application of cold and direct pressure against the aneurismal swelling by a curved spring attached to an India-rubber bandage around the head; by the use of small doses of digitalis daily; and requested the patient to assume a sitting position as much as possible. I could observe, in a short time, not only a gradual diminution in the impetus of the pulsation but also in the size of the tumour. To allay the

patient's anxious solicitude as regards the nature and probable result of his case, I requested him to consult Prof. Beaumont, who corroborated my opinion and indorsed my plan of treatment.

The left cheek became suddenly swollen and very painful, and a fungous growth made its appearance in front of the last molar tooth, in the space of a tooth which had been extracted some years ago. I removed this tumour two or three times in succession, and finally, by the application of nitric acid.

After a few weeks of perseverance in the above treatment, the tumour became hard and dense, and lost its pulsating character entirely, and the eye has assumed its natural position with improved vision. It is now five years since, and there is no indication of a reappearance of the disease.

Poisoning by Stramonium. By H. Y. EVANS, M. D.

While on duty last month, at one of the Homes for Friendless Children in this city, I was called to see seven of the inmates, aged from six to nine years, poisoned by eating the seeds of the Jamestown weed.

The seeds had been eaten about 10 A. M. At dinner (12 M.) two of the boys were noticed behaving in an unusual manner, refusing to eat, and quarrelling with those near them. Very soon a third boy, and by one o'clock seven gave marked evidence of being victims of the weed. I saw them at 2 P. M., four hours after they had taken the seeds. In all seven cases the pupils were dilated to their fullest capacity. In three, this, with a slight perversion of vision, were the only noticeable effects; but in the four remaining cases the narcotic had produced other and marked evidences of its presence—dilated pupils, perverted vision, confusion of intellect, deafness, intoxication, full pulse, slow respiration, entire loss of power of directing the motions of limbs, no eruption, nausea, or relaxation of bowels; and in a few hours stupor, which curiously enough was soon followed by obstinate insomnia, and in one case of delirium tremens. Emetics, ipecac, mustard water, powdered alum and sulphate of zinc, were freely administered—effectually in the three slight cases only, bringing away from eight to ten whole seeds from each child, but scarcely nauseating the other four cases. With the assistance of Dr. R. Stewart the stomach pump was used, and their stomachs washed of their contents. Many of the seeds thus removed were *finely chewed*, and as near as could be calculated about the same number as had been vomited by the three cases just mentioned, the only difference being that they were more comminuted in the latter cases.

In the most critical case the cold bath and douche were used. Opium and alcohol were administered with a favourable result. Opium was given in two other cases, apparently palliating the symptoms.

By the third day every vestige of the poison had disappeared, the pupils being the last to yield.

The only points of interest developed by these cases are: 1st. That ten of the seeds of the *Datura stramonium*, weighing less than one grain, which had been exposed to the rains and frosts for five months, should retain sufficient strength to seriously, if not fatally, poison a child of seven years.

2d. That the effects of the poison being so antagonistic to emetics, it is advisable in all such cases to resort immediately to the stomach pump. It was with the greatest difficulty that emesis was produced in the least affected of the seven cases, notwithstanding the powerful means employed.

DOMESTIC SUMMARY.

Cerebro-spinal Meningitis as observed at Mobile, Ala.—Dr. W. G. ARMSTRONG describes (*Atlanta Med. and Surg. Journ.*, June, 1866) this disease as observed by him during the winters of 1863-4 and 1864-5 at Mobile, Al.

He states that "in the midst of good health, after taking a hearty meal, or after a full day's work, the patient, without any premonitory symptoms, is suddenly attacked with coma, or stupor, so profound that he is with difficulty aroused even for a moment.

"In other cases vertigo, pain in the head and cervical region, extending along the spine, with lassitude and apprehension of impending danger are observed. Then again, chilly sensations at intervals of two or three hours, with cold extremities, followed by exacerbations of heat, flushed face and increased pulse, mark the approach of the disorder. Lastly, delirium, more or less wild, with a disposition, forcibly, to leave the bed or room, is in the outset a prominent symptom. * * * The condition of the pulse was variable; usually ranging from ninety to one hundred, hardly reaching one hundred and ten, unless just before the termination in death; on the other hand, it occasionally sank to forty or fifty beats per minute. Vomiting of bile and constipation are usually, in the beginning, prominent symptoms; the tongue is furred, and as the disorder advances, the teeth become covered with sordes.

"The urine is highly colored, scanty and often retained; at other times, especially towards the close, it is passed involuntarily. Intolerance of light and sound, when present, appears at the early part of the attack—the least ray of light being sufficient to cause spasmodic closure of the eyes and intense suffering; walking across the floor is excessively annoying to the sufferer; deafness and a general indifference to surrounding objects is occasionally noticed.

"The most prominent and almost universal symptoms are pain in the head and neck, accompanied by a tetanic rigidity of the cervical muscles, and of the large extensor muscles of the back. This trouble, slight at first, increases until the head is drawn back upon the shoulders, and no ordinary degree of force used by the attendant can overcome it. The muscles of the back and lower extremities are occasionally so much involved as to produce complete opisthotonos. In connection with this condition, paralysis of the muscles of the face is sometimes present, as exhibited in depression of the lower jaw and protrusion of the cheeks and lips in expiration. Involuntary twitchings of the muscles and want of prehension often exist also—the patient being unable to drink without assistance. Strabismus in one or both eyes was met with in several cases. The appearance of the pupils is not always the same, in the majority of cases being dilated; sometimes one is contracted and the other dilated, and I have occasionally seen both contracted. Delirium may be present at any period of cerebro-spinal meningitis, though most common in the latter stages before coma sets in, and is then of a low, muttering character.

"When coma comes on, which is usually about the fourth or fifth day, the pupils become widely dilated, the pulse more full, but is never, so far as my observation extends, of a bounding character, as in coma from apoplexy. Involuntary discharges from the bowels and bladder are now of most frequent occurrence. Stertorous breathing is rarely present, and until the coma is profound, the patient is continually tossing himself from side to side in bed, and carrying his hands to his head as though in great pain.

"Another very common symptom is hyperæsthesia of the whole nervous system; pressure upon the extremities, slight moving of the feet or bending the toes, causes the patient to cry out from pain. This exaltation of sensibility does not often appear at first, but towards the latter part of the attack. While vertigo, pain in the head, chilly sensations, intolerance of light and sound, deafness, stupor, exalted sensibility of the nervous system, delirium and coma were the usual symptoms by which this epidemic was characterized, yet there were a few cases of an intermittent type, accompanied by high fever with pain

in the head. Under the use of quinia these symptoms would yield for a few days and convalescence seemed to be established. A recurrence of these symptoms would take place two or three times, when those more violent, as extreme pain in the head and neck, rigidity of the muscles, &c., would supervene, and declare unmistakably the formidable nature of the disease.

"The duration of this affection is variable; it may destroy life in twenty-four or forty-eight hours, but from five to eight days is the usual time. During the winter of 1863-4, it proved fatal sooner than in the following—a few of the last cases seen having lived from ten to fifteen days."

Four cases are related of the disease with the *post-mortem* appearances. In all the cases deposits of lymph, of greater or less extent, were found on the brain and spinal cord; effusion of serum, in the arachnoid space with also some pus. In one case the anterior two-thirds of the cerebrum superiorly, was covered with an adventitious deposit of lymph, of a greenish-yellow color, forming adhesions between the arachnoid and pia mater, and following the latter as it dips down into the convolutions of the brain. The under surface of the anterior lobes, optic commissure, crura cerebri and pons Varolii are the seat of exudation also. Some pus is found at the medulla oblongata. This exudation was from one to two lines in thickness. The lateral ventricles are distended with effusion, which being drawn off, pus is found at the bottom. The choroid plexus is injected. The brain shows, on section, no indurations or softening, but appears healthy. In another case there was a deposit of lymph between the pia mater and arachnoid, on the anterior surface of the cerebrum superiorly, extensively upon and around the optic commissure, over the entire cerebellum, crura cerebri, pons Varolii, medulla oblongata, and spinal cord, throughout its whole extent to the cauda equina. The nerves arising from the cord on both sides were enveloped with this deposit also. At several points along the cord it had degenerated into pus.

Dr. A. states that, in his very extensive observations of the disease among the soldiers and negro labourers in and around Mobile, he never saw a single case recover.

Successful Operation for Subclavian Aneurism.—The first No. of the *New Orleans Medical Record*, edited by the well-known indefatigable Dr. Bennet Dowler, contains an interesting account, by Dr. A. W. SMYTH, of a case of a mulatto man, thirty-two years of age, admitted into the Charity Hospital, New Orleans, May 9, 1864, with aneurism of the right subclavian artery. The tumour was of the size of a small orange, "was circumscribed and round in shape, filling up the posterior inferior triangle of the neck; strong pulsatory movement was visible even at some distance, and on applying the ear to its surface, a loud bellows sound was heard accompanying the arterial beat. No difference was detected in the pulsation of the two radial arteries at the wrist, and there was nothing abnormal in the sounds of the heart.

"He complained a good deal of severe pain and numbness in the forearm and hand; for the past two months he had been unable to lie down or stand erect, but was compelled to lean forwards continually for relief, and to sleep sitting in a chair with his head resting on the side of the bed or on another chair placed opposite."

The patient was seen by a number of surgeons, and among others Dr. D. L. Rogers, of New York, who strongly urged the ligature of the innominate and carotid arteries at the same time. Dr. Smyth approved of this suggestion, and decided to adopt it. Accordingly on the 15th May, Dr. S. operated, assisted by Drs. Rogers, Holliday, Boyer, Bacon, and Orten.

"A longitudinal and transverse incision having been made after the method of Mott, no difficulty was experienced in placing a ligature on the innominate artery a quarter of an inch below its bifurcation, and another on the carotid, an inch above its origin. On tying the former all pulsation stopped in the tumour. The temperature of the arm and hand was immediately increased, and in about forty-eight hours after the operation a perceptible undulatory motion was discovered in the arteries of the wrist. But little diminution was yet apparent in

the size of the aneurism, and, except some slight febrile action, soon subsiding, no other constitutional disturbance was observed. The patient was now able to lie down for the first time in two months, and all went on favourably until the 29th. He complained, however, for the first few days of a burning pain in his arm, different (he said) from the numbness experienced before the operation. The ligature had come away from the carotid artery the day before.

"On the 29th of May, fourteen days from the time of operating, a severe hemorrhage occurred, causing syncope rapidly, and ceasing of its own accord. At least sixteen ounces of blood must have been lost in the space of three or four minutes. To prevent its recurrence the wound was filled with lint, and a small weight placed upon it to effect compression. Slight hemorrhage, however, to the extent of two ounces at a time took place on the two following days, and was stopped by the nurse pressing the lint more firmly into the wound.

"Finding that something more was necessary to check the bleeding, the idea suggested itself to me of filling the wound with small shot, as a more effectual means of compressing the artery. This expedient, although not exempt as I could see from dangerous consequences, at the same time offered some advantages, the principal among which was, that the pressure of the shot on the artery might possibly aid in effecting its occlusion. In removing the lint for this purpose hemorrhage recurred, and I found that the shot fully answered my expectations in checking it—so much so, that wishing to remove the ligature from the innominate, believing it now to be a useless source of irritation, I felt safe in pulling it away even against some resistance.

"A slight oozing, sufficient to stain the lint placed over the surface, followed for the two subsequent days, when it ceased, and all went on well for a fortnight more. The patient felt some difficulty in swallowing and an occasional desire to cough, about which, however, he made little complaint. The aneurism diminished rapidly in size, and pulsation became quite distinct at the wrist.

"The shot sinking gradually in the wound, I began to entertain some fears of its getting out of reach, and, on the 17th of June, I picked about half of it out with forceps, but in five hours, hemorrhage returning, it was immediately replaced. Slight bleeding, however, still recurred at intervals of two and fifteen days and was checked without difficulty.

"On the night of July 5th, being sent for with the announcement that the patient was dying, I discovered, on getting to his bedside, that he had had a terrific hemorrhage exceeding in quantity the first, on the 29th of May; he had fainted, was pulseless, and gasping in a frightful manner. The bleeding having ceased, I placed a compress of lint over the wound and added the paper weight used before as additional security.

"In the morning, on visiting the wards, I was surprised to find him fanning himself; he was very pale, his pulse was 140, and weak; his voice, however, was strong, and he observed that if the bleeding could only be stopped he would yet do well."

After studying the subject, Dr. S. concluded that the vertebral carries on almost the entire anastomosing circulation into the subclavian artery, and he therefore decided to ligate the former vessel. On the 8th July, fifty-four days after the first operation, he placed a ligature on the vertebral artery in the following manner:—

"The head of the patient being thrown back and slightly turned to the left, an incision, two inches in length, was made along the posterior border of the sterno-mastoid muscle, commencing at the point where the external jugular vein crosses this muscle and terminating a little above the clavicle, the edge of the muscle being exposed and drawn to the inner side, the prominent anterior tubercle of the transverse process of the sixth cervical vertebra was readily felt and taken for a guide. Immediately below this, and in a vertical line with it, lies the artery. A layer of fascia was now divided, some loose cellular tissue with lymphatics and the ascending cervical artery were pulled to the inner side, and a separation was made between the scalenus anticus and longus colli muscles close below their insertion into the tubercle, when the artery and vein became

visible, the latter was drawn to the outer side (this is important) and the needle passed around the former from without inwards.¹

"No constitutional disturbance whatever was observed after this operation, which was much facilitated by the empty state of the vessels. On the following morning all the shot was removed from the first wound (having remained thirty-eight days) and was found to weigh two and a half ounces. It had gone deeply into the neck and had probably ceased to press on the artery.

"A marked decrease in the circulation of the arm was now apparent, the slight pulsation at the wrist disappearing; coldness and œdema supervened and the brachial artery became occluded, feeling corded throughout its whole extent. I was somewhat alarmed for the safety of the limb, but in a few days these unfavourable symptoms began to subside and slight pulsation was again perceived in the radial artery.

"No further hemorrhage having taken place after the second operation, the new wound healed rapidly; the ligature coming away on the tenth day. The first wound also closed, though more slowly, and the patient at present, September 15th, is entirely well, excepting that he yet lacks perfect command over the muscles of his arm, which, however, he is rapidly regaining. The aneurismal sac has almost disappeared, but there still exists some noticeable swelling above the clavicle.

"The lessons drawn from this first successful case must be of great importance in future operations for the cure of subclavian aneurism. We have twenty recorded cases, in which ligature of the innominate or of the subclavian artery in the first part of its course, *without that of the vertebral*, have proved fatal, and it is reasonable to suppose that it would always prove so.

"In the present case it would have been a difficult matter to have reached the vertebral at the time of the first operation, owing to the size of the aneurism. Still I think it was possible (it would always be so in the upper part of its course), and the early occurrence of secondary hemorrhage in some of the fatal cases shows the danger of delay.

"If the innominate and vertebral arteries should be tied at the same time, it would not do to omit ligature of the carotid also, since we have seen that its occlusion in other cases was only owing to the current from the vertebral. But if an interval should be allowed to elapse between the operations, it is a question whether the carotid might not be left to this occlusion. Statistics being so imperfect on this point it is impossible to decide.

"It is highly probable that ligature of the vertebral will also render safe the operation on the subclavian in the first part of its course, and this might appear preferable in some cases to tying the innominate, as it would leave the carotid free."

Ligature of Primitive Iliac Artery.—Dr. R. N. ISHAM records (*Chicago Medical Journal*, May, 1866) a case of aneurism of the anterior trunk of the internal iliac, resulting from a bayonet wound of the right buttock through the ischiatic notch, for which he ligated the primitive iliac on the 7th October. Gangrene of the sac occurred, and the patient died on the 11th October. An interesting feature in the case was the disappearance of the tumour, and its subsequent return constituting secondary aneurism. An interesting case of the same occurrence after ligature of the primitive iliac artery, related by Dr. J. B. CUTTER, will be found in the number of this Journal for October, 1865.

Gunshot Wound, with Removal of Rim of Acetabulum, and Dislocation of Femur; Recovery.—An interesting case of this is recorded by Dr. J. F. MINER (*Buffalo Medical Journal*, May, 1866).

The subject of it, Col. Strong, was wounded, May 5, 1862, at Williamsburgh,

¹ The vertebral artery sometimes passes in front of the anterior tubercle of the sixth cervical vertebra, entering the foramen in the fifth transverse process—in this case it is easily found. In a subject in whom the right subclavian was given off beyond the left, returning behind the trachea, the vertebral branch entered the foramen of the seventh vertebra. These variations are worth remembering.

Va. The ball entered a little below the anterior superior spinous process of the ilium, and made its exit near the outer margin of the sacrum. The ball passed deeply, and fractured in its course the rim of the acetabulum, which was removed an inch and a half in length and of a diameter sufficient to show that the whole upper rim had been carried away. The wound was very large, and a thorough examination could be made by the easy passage of the finger. After a stay in military hospital of eight days, he was placed on board ship, and taken to his home, Buffalo, N. Y. On his arrival the wound presented a healthy appearance, and the constitutional disturbance was slight, considering the nature of the injury. The leg was partly flexed upon the thigh, and the thigh upon the body, the whole drawn internally to considerable extent. In this position it was fixed; it could not be moved in the slightest degree without producing pain, which was absolutely unendurable. The constitutional disturbance at length became very great, and the question of life rather than position of the leg engrossed all attention. Fragments of clothing and spiculæ of bone were at various times extracted or washed from the wound, while great quantities of pus constantly issued. Chills, profuse perspiration, rapid pulse, great prostration, with total loss of appetite, make up the main features of the case, the severe and continual pain overshadowing and covering all other symptoms—pain which it was impossible to allay. In this condition of extreme distress and uncertainty of life he continued without great change for about eight or ten weeks, when he gradually and very slowly commenced to improve, both in his general condition and in the appearance of the wound, until after a few weeks more he could be moved from one side of the bed to the other, and his comfort promoted by change of position. Abscesses afterwards occasionally formed for the next two years inducing great constitutional disturbance. For the last two years the patient has enjoyed comfortable health.

At present "the thigh is shortened three and a half inches; the head of the femur rests upon the ilium above the acetabulum, and a complete and bony ankylosis exists; the knee is drawn inwards and the joint has good motion. The weight of the body can be borne upon that leg with comfort, and the twisting of the pelvis and the extension of the toes compensate for the shortening and stiffening in a wonderful degree, so that he walks with, or without a cane, with but slight disability, considering the severity of the injury and the unnatural condition of the articulation."

New Liquid for Producing Local Anæsthesia.—Prof. HENRY J. BIGELOW recommends (*Boston Med. and Surg. Journ.*, April 19, 1866) a petroleum naphtha, one of the most volatile liquids obtained by the distillation of petroleum, to which he gives the name of *Rhigolene*, as superior to ether for producing local anæsthesia. When Prof. B. learned, he says, that Dr. Richardson, of London, has succeeded in producing local anæsthesia by ether vapour, it occurred to him "that a very volatile product of petroleum might be more sure to congeal the tissues, besides being far less expensive, than ether. Mr. Merrill having, at my request, manufactured a liquid of which the boiling point was 70° F., it proved that the mercury was easily depressed by this agent to 19° below zero, and that the skin could be with certainty frozen hard in five or ten seconds. A lower temperature might doubtless be produced, were it not for the ice which surrounds the bulb of the thermometer. This result may be approximately effected by the common and familiar "spray producer," the concentric tubes of Dr. Richardson not being absolutely necessary to congeal the tissues with the rhigolene, as in his experiments with common ether. I have for convenience used a glass phial, through the cork of which passes a metal tube for the fluid, the air-tube being outside, and bent at its extremity so as to meet the fluid-tube at right angles, at some distance from the neck of the bottle. Air is not admitted to the bottle, as in Mr. Richardson's apparatus, the vapour of the rhigolene generated by the warmth of the hand applied externally being sufficient to prevent a vacuum and to insure its free delivery; 15° below zero is easily produced by this apparatus. The bottle, when not in use, should be kept tightly corked, a precaution by no means superfluous, as the liquid readily loses its more volatile parts by evaporation, leaving a denser and consequently less effi-

cient residue. In this, and in several more expensive forms of apparatus in metal, both with and without the concentric tubes, I have found the sizes of 72 and 78 of Stub's steel wire gauge to work well for the air and fluid orifices respectively; and it may be added that metal points reduced to sharp edges are preferable to glass, which, by its non-conducting properties, allows the orifices to become obstructed by frozen aqueous vapour.

"Freezing by rhigolene is far more sure than by ether, as suggested by Mr. Richardson, inasmuch as common ether, boiling only at about 96° instead of 70° , often fails to produce an adequate degree of cold. The rhigolene is more convenient and more easily controlled than the freezing mixtures hitherto employed. Being quick in its action, inexpensive, and comparatively odourless, it will supersede general or local anæsthesia by ether or chloroform for small operations and in private houses. The opening of felons and other abscesses, the removal of small tumours, small incisions, excisions, and evulsions, and perhaps the extraction of teeth, may be thus effected with admirable ease and certainty; and for these purposes surgeons will use it, as also, perhaps, for the relief of neuralgia, chronic rheumatism, &c., and as a styptic, and for the destruction by freezing of erectile and other growths. But for large operations it is obviously less convenient than general anæsthesia, and will never supersede it. Applied to the skin, a first degree of congelation is evanescent; if protracted longer, it is followed by redness and desquamation, which may be possibly averted by the local bleeding of an incision; but if continued or used on a large scale, the dangers of frost-bite and mortification must be imminent."

Dr. CALVIN G. PAGE, in a subsequent number of the same journal (May 24, 1866), confirms the statement of Prof. B.

"It is well known," he says, "that the temperature of the ordinary freezing mixture of ice and salt is from 0° to -2° . This temperature has been found sufficient for freezing living tissue and destroying local sensibility, but this mixture requires time for preparation, is sometimes difficult to apply, and is not available in the mouth. Ether (easily reduced to -4°), when vaporized in the mouth, produces irritation and disagreeable disturbance of the mucous membrane. Rhigolene has no such objection; when applied in the mouth it causes no irritation, nor does it produce any of the signs of general anæsthesia, the time taken in applying it being only from five to ten seconds. I have used it successfully in nine cases at the Central Office of the Boston Dispensary on teeth. The gum outside and inside should be slightly frozen, and should the crown of the tooth be found broken, it can be applied directly upon the carious part of the tooth, which may then be extracted without any outcry from the patient. I have also used it in various minor operations at the Dispensary, for Dr. S. L. Sprague, as extracting a fish-hook from the finger, extracting a needle from the hand, opening an abscess on the shoulder, a felon, &c.; and also at my own office for the first time on Sunday, April 15th, for opening a felon, and since then twice for felon and once for abscess, with perfect success.

"The result of all my experiments and trials seems to prove that rhigolene is a perfectly successful local anæsthetic, and in the mouth is superior to anything yet used; that ether will do the work on the external surface of the body without difficulty, as it can be brought below the temperature of the ordinary freezing mixture, but requires more time; that the Richardson instrument has no powers not equalled or surpassed by my modification of the Bergsen tubes. It is probable that the ordinary Bergsen tubes, made of smaller tubing and with finer points, will be finally used for local anæsthesia, with such modifications of form as will render them applicable to the mouth and the vagina. The excess of fluid in the tube is best prevented by placing a bit of sponge or wicking in the open end of the fluid-bearing arm of the tube.

"Instruments with stopcocks or cylinders requiring lubrication are not available with rhigolene, which takes up all oily matter in solution and causes leakage—for example, Luer's atomizer. Glass tubes will not answer, glass being a non-conductor.

"Dr. Bigelow, in his article on Rhigolene, gives a temperature of -19° as easily produced, but does not give the time necessary to produce it. I doubt if such a low temperature can be produced on a standard thermometer in sixty seconds,

the time allowed in most of my experiments, by any instrument yet devised, though it can be if sufficient time is taken. The only objections to rhigolene are that it must be kept very cool, and cannot be conveniently carried about in warm weather or in the evening, as it boils at 70°, and is inflammable."

Active Principle of Rhus Toxicodendron.—Mr. JOHN P. MAISCH, one of our most skilful pharmacutists, has published (*American Journal of Pharmacy*, January, 1866) his analysis of the Rhus Toxicodendron, which shows that it contains a new organic acid, for which he proposes the name of *Toxicodendric acid*. "That it is the principle," he states, "to which the poison oak owes its effects on the human system, was proved to my entire satisfaction by the copious eruption and the formation of numerous vesicles on the back of my hand, on the fingers, wrists, and bare arms, while I was distilling and operating with it. Several persons coming into the room while I was engaged with it, were more or less poisoned by the vapours diffused in the room; and I even transferred the poisonous effects to some other persons, merely by shaking hands with them."

"The dilute acid, as obtained by me, and stronger solutions of its salts, were applied to several persons, and eruptions were produced in several instances, probably by the former, though not always, which was most likely owing to the dilute state of the acid. Whenever this was boiled, I always felt the same itching sensation in the face, and on the bare arms, which I experience on continual exposure of my hands to the juice of the plant."

"As remedies against it, I have tried subacetate of lead, permanganate of potassa and ammonia, the last, I believe, with the best success. Alkaline solutions were first recommended by Prof. Procter, I believe, and, as my experiments show, they are the remedies which, *à priori*, might be expected to afford the greatest relief, just as in the case of formic acid. The eruption produced by this acid is very similar in its nature to the one produced by toxicodendric acid, and its effects yield readily to alkaline lotions. It is not unlikely that, like the formiates, the toxicodendrates are without any ill effects, if applied externally. The reactions of our new acid show, likewise, the reason why permanganate of potassa, subacetate and even acetate of lead may be valuable remedies for this eruption. While the former completely decomposes it, the last named salts produce nearly insoluble precipitates with it; at least, toxicodendric appears to be stronger in its affinities than acetic acid."

Sanitary Condition of the City of New Orleans during Federal Military Occupation.—The *Southern Journal of Medical Sciences* for May, 1866, has an interesting paper on this subject by one of the editors, Dr. E. D. FENNER, whose death our profession has recently had to deplore. This article teaches some sanitary lessons of the utmost importance. Dr. F. testifies from personal observation to the extraordinary efforts made by the military authorities to improve the sanitary condition of the city and to the success of those efforts. "Such efforts," he observes, "were never made before, although so often urged by the medical profession in previous years. But, perhaps, it may be said *such motives* were never presented before. Be that as it may, in spite of all the sufferings and sorrows incident to the war, we may still be thankful that this great sanitary experiment has been made. The city may be said to have been cleansed, and kept clean; at least when contrasted with anything of the kind ever seen here before. It was a herculean task, and, in our humble opinion, nothing short of military despotism would have accomplished it. The good work is not yet completed, but its salutary effects so far have been palpable, and ought to encourage us to carry it on to perfection. We have long entertained the opinion that if approved sanitary measures were as rigidly enforced in New Orleans as they are in London, Paris, and other European cities, it would perhaps rival any of them in salubrity. There is nothing in the climate or locality that renders the preservation of health and the attainment of longevity here impossible."

"But it may be contended," he adds, "that New Orleans is more indebted to quarantine than to local sanitary police for its escape from epidemic pestilence during its late military occupation. I cannot think so. Quarantine was supposed to be enforced with all possible rigor, being demanded by the same powerful motives

that urged the enforcement of local sanitary measures. But I dare say there were a few lapses during the period. I, myself, saw a fatal case of yellow fever near St. Mary's Market in July, 1862, that was imported from Key West, Florida. The vessel on which it came was soon sent down to the quarantine station, and no bad effects followed. There may have been others which have not been brought to light, for every effort was made to ignore the existence of yellow fever in the city, to prevent panic among the soldiers.

"But, admitting yellow fever to have been imported into the city every year during its military occupation, we have still the extraordinary fact that the disease did not spread or become epidemic among a vast crowd of the most susceptible subjects. To what could this escape be attributed save the admirable local sanitary police that was established and enforced? Admitting that a considerable number of yellow fever cases were imported during the military occupation, a fact which I this moment learn from conversation with a member of the sanitary commissioners appointed by the commanding general, it only strengthens the argument in favour of the superior virtues of local sanitary police. How else can the failure of the disease to become epidemic be accounted for? Yellow fever raged fearfully at Wilmington, North Carolina, in 1863, then in the Confederate lines, and at Newbern, in the same State, in 1864, in both instances attributed to importation.

"All that is expected of quarantine is to keep contagious or infectious diseases from places where such diseases do not originate. If it cannot do that, it is an expensive and very troublesome thing. If such diseases originate in a place it is vain to expect complete protection from quarantine. Yellow fever was almost universally thought to be in this category in respect to New Orleans until within the last few years. But it is now contended there are two distinct species of yellow fever—the one pestilential and highly infectious; the other paludal or malarious, and but slightly, if at all, infectious. The former originating alone within the tropics—the latter epidemic at many places beyond. However real the grounds of this distinction may be, there is no doubt that this disease, like scarlatina and many others, varies greatly in malignancy and infectiousness at different times; and when a pernicious type of it prevails if there be any known means capable of preventing its extension they should certainly be adopted. Quarantine is the measure generally resorted to for this purpose, but, unfortunately, it has never satisfactorily accomplished the object. Why is this? Is it because a perfect quarantine has never been enforced? Or rather because it is impossible to prevent the spreading of such a pestilence by such means? These are questions of the highest importance; and if the experience of the last sixty-five years both in Europe and America have not been sufficient to settle them definitely, we shall have to wait for more."

"The exemption of New Orleans from epidemics of yellow fever during the period of military occupation cannot, in our opinion, be attributed to the agency of quarantine, because infected vessels with the disease on board were admitted into the city at different times, both early and late in the hot seasons of the year, when every circumstance was most favourable to its prevalence if it were really contagious. To what then can the escape be due? Some may say to accident—or chance; and in proof of it refer to similar escapes from as long periods in previous years. But we maintain that no parallel in all respects can be cited since yellow fever began to prevail at New Orleans. Others will be more inclined to think with ourselves that it was owing to the improved sanitary condition of the city. If this be true, it corroborates the conclusions of the ablest investigators of the present day into the origin and spread of pestilence. The plague, Asiatic cholera, and yellow fever belong to the same class of diseases, the *zymotic*, and originated from similar causes. Unfortunately, the precise nature of those causes still remains unknown; yet we have learned much in respect to the conditions necessary to their production and favour their extension.

"If our people would avail themselves of this knowledge and carry out the measures it inculcates, we have every reason to believe such diseases might be prevented, or eradicated when they exist. All efforts hitherto made to prevent their extension by means of quarantine and sanitary cordons have failed, and we have but little reason to hope they will ever succeed. For twenty years, we, and some others, have laboured to convince the people of New Orleans that the

only way to make the city healthy is, *to make and keep it clean*. But we have laboured in vain. In the mysterious course of events the hand of the tyrant has been brought to our aid, and the results are marvellous. Will our citizens profit by this experience, and continue to enforce their own health ordinances as the Federal military authorities enforced them? If they do not, the consequences will surely be deplorable."

Removal of a Pistol Ball; Use of Acupuncture Needle.—Dr. GURDON BUCK stated to the New York Pathological Society (January 25, 1866) that he had successfully employed the acupuncture needle in detecting the ball in a case of gunshot wound in a man who, while carrying a pistol in his fob, the weapon was accidentally discharged and its contents were lodged into the groin immediately below Poupart's ligament, just two inches outside of the femoral. On introducing a probe into the wound of entrance, it followed a track over the inner condyle and a little above it, and at its bottom a firm body was encountered that was about the size and shape of the missile that was supposed to have been lodged there. This body could be slipped within a certain limit, and its movement would cause pain. Presuming that it was the ball, there was not certainty enough in the diagnosis to warrant an attempt at its extraction until the acupuncture needle was used. This was passed down in the situation of the deep-seated lump through the tissues, and encountered the foreign body. By certain manipulations it was found to escape from the point of the instrument and roll aside, which fact left no doubt in the mind of the presence of the projectile at that point. It was then cut down upon a narrow-bladed knife, and removed without difficulty. Dr. Buck remarked that his attention had been first called to the needle by seeing a published account in some of the medical periodicals of its use by a Scotch army surgeon, whose name he did not recollect. Dr. Buck also stated in this connection that he had employed the same procedure with success in discovering the existence of a calcareous body impacted in the prostate gland. The needle in this instance was curved, and was introduced into the gland upon the finger as a guide. The needle is very fine, and has a trocar point in order to facilitate its entrance into the tissues.—*Medical Record*, June 15, 1866.

Hyposulphite of Soda in Scarlet Fever.—Dr. N. L. NORTH states (*New York Med. Journal*, March, 1866) that he has been led by Dr. Polli's theory to give the hypsulphite of soda a trial in scarlet fever, and he thinks it a remedy of much power in controlling the symptoms of the developed disease, by eliminating or destroying the poison, and also as a prophylactic.

"I am not so sanguine," he says, "as to suppose that we have in the hypsulphite of soda an unfailing remedy for this dreaded malady, or even a positive prophylactic; yet I have a strong belief that it may prove beneficial both in the treatment and prevention of scarlet fever."

Rupture of the Uterus; Gastrotomy; Recovery.—Dr. E. MILES WILLETT records (*Medical and Surgical Monthly* (Memphis), March, 1866) a case of this.

NECROLOGY.—ALEXANDER INGRAM was born in Macduff, near Bauff, Scotland, Dec. 12, 1837, while his parents were on a visit to their native land. In the fall of 1840, they returned to this country with their son, and settled near Cincinnati, Ohio. In 1854, he entered Dartmouth College, and in 1858 graduated third in his class. On returning to Cincinnati, he entered the office of Dr. Potter, as a student of medicine, and after attending the usual course of lectures, graduated with credit at the medical college of Ohio in March, 1861; spending the last year of his student life as an "interne" in the Commercial Hospital in that city, where his affability and studious habits endeared him both to the Faculty and to all with whom he was associated.

After graduating, he opened an office in Cincinnati with every prospect of success, but abandoned it upon the breaking out of the war, and presented himself before the Army Medical Board in New York City for examination for the position of assistant surgeon in the army, passing sixth in a class of twenty, and receiving his commission on the 28th of May, 1861.

He was first assigned to duty in the hospital for regulars, in C St., Washington, D. C.; then in the Union Hotel Hospital, Georgetown, D. C., to the charge of which he soon succeeded by the resignation of Assistant Surgeon Gaenslen, U. S. A., who joined the army of the rebellion; he then organized, and was assigned to the charge of the "Circle" Hospital, Washington, D. C., remaining there until Oct. 3, 1861, when he was assigned to duty with the Second U. S. Cavalry, McDowell's Division, Army of the Potomac, at that time encamped near Washington. This regiment accompanied the army on its first grand movement in March, 1862, and Dr. Ingram remained with it throughout the entire Peninsular campaign, participating with it in the battles at Yorktown, Williamsburg, Hanover C. H., Mechanicsville, Gaines Mills, Savage Station, White Oak Swamp, Malvern Hill, the Second Bull Run, South Mountain, and Antietam, and remaining with it until Dec. 10, 1862, when, on account of his health, which had suffered severe inroads from the exposure of the field and active campaigning, he was assigned to the charge of the St. Aloysius's Hospital, Washington, D. C., where he remained until its discontinuance, when he was assigned to the charge of the Judiciary Square Hospital.

In August, 1864, he was assigned, at his own request, to duty in the Department of the Pacific, and on arriving at San Francisco, California, Oct. 10, 1864, was assigned to the duty in that city of attending officers and their families and as a member of the examining board for medical officers of the volunteer service.

Upon this duty he remained until Feb. 6, 1865, when he was assigned as surgeon-in-chief of the troops in Southern California, with his station at Monterey, and remained at the port until the following July, when he was ordered to Cape Disappointment, Washington Territory, and embarked July 28, 1865, in company with brevet Brig.-General Geo. Wright, U. S. A., commanding the department, on the ill-fated steamer, "Brother Jonathan," which, on the 30th of July struck a sunken rock off the coast of California, opposite Camp Lincoln, and about six miles north of Crescent City, and with her precious freight went to the bottom in a few minutes; sixteen souls only, out of all on board, were saved to tell the sad tale.

But few men possess the qualities, both mental and physical, which were embodied in Dr. Ingram; of frank, manly countenance, fine physique, and graceful carriage, with a disposition at once gentle but firm, kind and considerate, and a heart as susceptible as a woman's, he was, indeed, the beau ideal of a man.

As a surgeon he had but few superiors; a thorough anatomist, and possessed of most excellent judgment, he was rapid in his decisions, and bold and daring in his operative procedures, and his contributions of pathological specimens to the Army Medical Museum are mute evidence of the zeal with which the practice of his profession was pursued. His skill as a physician was universally admitted; his gentle nature and winning manners endeared him to his patients; his kindness and appreciation of suffering was proverbial, and many a prayer from the fevered lips of the sick soldier has gone to the throne of grace in behalf of this physician, whose cheerful face and kind consoling words shed such a glow of sunshine on the hearts of his country's defenders.

In the regiment with which he served (the 2d U. S. Cavalry) he was a great favourite; his consideration for and devotion to the men, who always received his earliest attention and warmest sympathies, converted into an attachment that respect which they could not but feel for him as an officer, and his courage and fearlessness commanded the admiration of all his brother officers; always at his post, heedless of any danger, sacrificing his personal comfort on all occasions for the comfort of the wounded, and scrupulously attentive to all their wants, can it be wondered at that this soldier surgeon was beloved by all who knew him?

The following paragraph, written by one of his comrades, attests the affection with which he was regarded by them:—

"Many are the brave hearts and noble souls, over whose almost lifeless forms he watched from night till morn, and till night again, and whose every want was anticipated and administered to, as is that of the dying babe by the fond and affectionate mother. *Soldiers* feel his loss as none but soldiers can feel, and soldiers' prayers ascend to heaven with his soul."—C. R. G.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

ANNOUNCEMENT FOR THE ONE HUNDRED AND FIRST SESSION—(1866-67).

WILLIAM GIBSON, M. D.,	Emeritus Professor of Surgery.
GEORGE B. WOOD, M. D.,	Emeritus Professor of Theory and Practice of Medicine.
SAMUEL JACKSON, M. D.,	Emeritus Professor of Institutes of Medicine.
HUGH L. HODGE, M. D.,	{ Emeritus Professor of Obstetrics and the Diseases of Women and Children.
JOSEPH CARSON, M. D.,	
ROBERT E. ROGERS, M. D.,	Professor of Materia Medica and Pharmacy.
JOSEPH LEIDY, M. D.,	Professor of Chemistry.
H. H. SMITH, M. D.,	Professor of Anatomy.
FRANCIS G. SMITH, M. D.,	Professor of Surgery.
R. A. F. PENROSE, M. D.,	Professor of Institutes of Medicine.
	Professor of Obstetrics and the Diseases of Women and Children.
ALFRED STILLÉ, M. D.,	Professor of Theory and Practice of Medicine.
D. HAYES AGNEW, M. D.,	Demonstrator of Anatomy, and Assistant Lecturer on Clinical Surgery.

The Lectures of the Session (1866-67) will begin on the second Monday of October and close on the first of March.

One Introductory will be delivered to the Course.

Clinical Instruction is given throughout the Session, in the Medical Hall, by the Professors, and at the Hospitals. At the Philadelphia Hospital, containing 571 beds, instruction is free.

The Dissecting Rooms, under the superintendence of the Professor of Anatomy and the Demonstrator, are open throughout the year, except in July and August.

The room for Operative Surgery and the Application of Bandages, &c., is open throughout the Session, under the supervision of the Professor of Surgery.

Fees for the Lectures (each Professor \$20)	\$140*
Matriculation Fee (paid once only)	5
Graduation Fee	30

The Lectures of the Auxiliary Faculty of Medicine commence on the first Monday of April, and continue to the end of June, by the following Professors:—

HARRISON ALLEN, M. D.,	Zoology and Comparative Anatomy.
HORATIO C. WOOD, JR., M. D.,	Botany.
F. V. HAYDEN, M. D.,	Geology and Mineralogy.
HENRY HARTSHORNE, M. D.,	Hygiene.
JOHN J. REESE, M. D.,	Medical Jurisprudence and Toxicology.

This course is free to all Students of the University.

R. E. ROGERS, M. D., *Dean of the Medical Faculty,*
University Building.

Ninth Street between Chestnut and Market Sts.

At a Public Commencement, held March 14, 1866, in the Academy of Music, the degree of Doctor of Medicine was conferred by Rev. DANIEL R. GOODWIN, D.D. Provost, upon the following gentlemen: after which an Address was delivered by HENRY H. SMITH, M. D., Professor of Surgery.

NAME.	COUNTY.	STATE.	SUBJECT OF THESIS.
Agnew, Henry	Northampton,	Pa.	Dysentery.
Barkdoll, Francis	Washington,	Md.	Circulation of the Blood.
Beck, Joseph Reinmund	Fairfield,	Ohio.	Epilepsy.
Best, Isaac R.	Bracken,	Ky.	Pneumonia.
Betts, Thomas	Bucks,	Pa.	Acute Enteritis.
Bishoff, Henry W.	Dauphin,	Pa.	Epidemic Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis.
Bright, Joseph T.	Fayette,	Ky.	Spermatorrhœa.

* The fee for attendance on the Lectures of the University has been raised in common with those of the Philadelphia, New York, and Boston Schools of Medicine.

NAME.	COUNTY.	STATE.	SUBJECT OF THESIS.
Brown, John T.	Chester,	Pa.	Dysentery.
Browning, Ludwell Yancy	Mason,	Ky.	Eclampsia.
Brumbaugh, Andrew B.	Huntingdon,	Pa.	The True System of Medical Eclecticism.
Brush, Platte E. (M. D.)	Susquehanna,	Pa.	Specialties in Medicine.
Burke, Patrick Henry	Stewart,	Ga.	Hospital Gangrene.
Carman, William J.	Greene,	N. C.	Rubeola.
Caumont, Francis G.	H'tes Pyrenees,	France.	Phthisis Pulmonalis.
Cloud, J. Albert	Chester,	Pa.	Rheumatism.
Coe, William H.	Livingston,	N. Y.	Typhoid Fever.
Cooper, Ezek'l W.	Kent,	Del.	Influence of the Mind on the Corporeal Functions.
Corson, Thomas F.	Montgomery,	Pa.	Chronic Diarrhoea.
Corss, Frederic	Bradford,	Pa.	Vision.
Crooks, William C.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Wounds.
Curtin, Roland G.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Palpitation of the Heart.
Dann, Archibald	Genesee,	N. Y.	Science <i>vs.</i> Charlatanry.
De Beust, Robert Hare	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Opium, its Uses and Abuses.
Donges, John W.	Berks,	Pa.	Injuries incident to Mining Regions.
Downing, Francis M.	Mason,	Ky.	The Early Treatment of Children.
Duckworth, William L.	Haywood,	Tenn.	Relation between Chemistry and Medicine.
Du Pont, Alexis I.	New Castle,	Del.	Acute Colitis.
Eby, James B.	Perry,	Pa.	Epidemic Cholera.
Ellerbee, Alexander W.	Chesterfield,	S. C.	Typhoid Fever.
Ellershaw, William	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Phthisis Pulmonalis.
Ellis, Ruffin B.	Wake,	N. C.	Inflammation.
Ermentrout, Samuel C.	Berks,	Pa.	Typhoid Fever.
Evans, Richard W.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Insanity.
Forbes, William S. (M. D.)	Philadelphia,	Pa.	On the Treatment of the Wounded Men of the 12th Army Corps during the Siege of Vicksburg, 1863.
Ford, Stephen E.	Cecil,	Md.	Typhoid Fever.
Forwood, John F. M.	Delaware,	Pa.	Hospital Gangrene.
Frame, Thomas C.	Kent,	Del.	Yellow Fever.
Frazer, James H.	Cecil,	Md.	Diseases of the Chest.
French, Jona. John	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Typhus Fever.
Gerhard, Abraham S.	Montgomery,	Pa.	Desquamative Nephritis.
Gillespie, John E.	Chester,	Pa.	Gonorrhœa.
Githens, William H. H.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Differential Diagnosis between Typhus and Typhoid Fevers.
Grayson, Thomas F.	Loudon,	Va.	Typhoid Fever.
Groff, John A.	Berks,	Pa.	Dysentery.
Guthrie, James G.	Butler,	Pa.	Typhoid Fever.
Gutshall, Frank A.	Cumberland,	Pa.	Desquamative Nephritis.
Hall, George M. D.	Centre,	Pa.	Pleuritis.
Hare, Horace Binney	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Cholera Infantum.
Hartman, William L.	Chester,	Pa.	Spermatorrhœa.
Harrison, William D.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	On the Constitutional and Local Treatment of Gangrene.
Harry, David W.	Montgomery,	Pa.	Scarlatina.
Hassler, Ferdinand A.	Washington,	D. C.	Entozoa.
Herman, Benjamin F.	Cumberland,	Pa.	Emmenagogues.
Howard, Stephen	Cumberland,	N. S.	Hepatitis.
Hoy, Jeremiah W.	Centre,	Pa.	The Medical Profession.
Huffnagle, John	Bucks,	Pa.	Variola.
Hughes, James H.	Chester,	Pa.	Remittent Fever.
Hunter, John A.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Digestion.

NAME.	COUNTY.	STATE.	SUBJECT OF THESIS.
Hutchison, William N.	Chester,	Pa.	Emerics.
Hylton, John Dunbar	Burlington,	N. J.	Typhoid Fever.
Ingham James V.	Philadelphia.	Pa.	Empiricism.
Irvin, Joseph S. K.	Cumberland,	Pa.	Dyspepsia.
Jacobs, Luther D.	Franklin,	Pa.	Placenta Prævia.
James, John E.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Lithotomy.
Jamieson, Robert A.	St Clair,	Mich.	Enteric Fever.
Jenks, William Furness	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Paracentesis Thoracis.
Johnson, William H.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Acne.
Kemp, Simon A.	Montreal,	Can. E.	Spotted Fever.
Knox, Samuel B. P.	Fayette,	Pa.	Alcohol.
Kreider, Jacob B.	Centre,	Pa.	Bronchitis.
Lambdin, Alfred C.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Nature of Inflammation.
Lancaster, Thomas	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Moral and Physical Culture of Women.
Lesh, John H.	Northampton,	Pa.	Pleurisy.
Lesh, Aug. H.	Berks,	Pa.	Typhoid Fever.
Light, Amos B.	Lebanon,	Pa.	Digestion.
Lockwood, John C.	Kent,	Del.	Typhoid Fever.
Long, Isaac S.	Warren,	N. J.	Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis.
Lymer, Richard H.	Mercer,	Pa.	Epidemic Influence.
Magraw, James M.	Harford,	Md.	Intermittent Fever.
Markoe, James, jr.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Iritis.
Marmion, George H. I.	Jefferson,	Va.	The Study of Medicine.
Marmion, William V.	Jefferson,	Va.	Menorrhagia.
McCreary, John H.	Lancaster,	Pa.	External Scrofula.
McDowell, Francis Buck	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Hepatitis.
McKinney, Edmund	Montgomery,	Tenn.	Ozæna.
McKnight, Joseph G.	Lorain,	Ohio.	The Being a Unit ever Changing.
McPherson, Andrew G.	Perth,	Can. W.	Neuralgia.
Mench, Martin L.	Union,	Pa.	Conduct of the Physician in the Sick-room.
Metzger, George W.	Lycoming,	Pa.	Hemorrhage.
Miller, Alex. M.	Berks,	Pa.	Myology.
Morrison, Samuel Wilmer	Lancaster,	Pa.	Acute Rheumatism.
Murphy, James	Norfolk,	Can. W.	Morbid Condition of the Blood.
Norris, Herbert	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Epilepsy.
O'Reilly, Robert	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Amputations and Resections in Military Surgery.
Orth, Harry L.	Dauphin,	Pa.	Idiopathic Erysipelas.
Osborne, Richard H. G.	New Castle,	Del.	The Present State of Mental Physiology.
Paine, Charles F.	Northampton,	Pa.	Epidemic Cholera.
Parke, Alexander G. B.	Chester,	Pa.	Labour.
Pennepacker, Henry	Delaware,	Pa.	Building and Repairing the Human Structure.
Petrie, James A.	Warren,	N. J.	Morbus Coxarius.
Pinney, Charles H. (M. D.)	Lorain,	Ohio.	Lithotomy.
Reber, Chambers S.	Berks,	Pa.	Physical Diagnosis of the Respiratory Organs.
Reece, Madison (M. D.)	Knox,	Ill.	Dysentery.
Reed, Edward H.	Mercer,	N. J.	Typhoid Fever.
Reed, John A.	Bracken,	Ky.	Cholera Infantum.
Reed, Mengel	Bedford,	Pa.	Gall Stones.
Rex, Thomas A. (M. D.)	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Hospital Gangrene.
Risk, William H.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Podagra.
Ritter, Frederic W.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Sulphate of Quinia.
Rouse, Morris D.	Monroe,	Pa.	Dyspepsia.
Ruth, Melanethon L.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Specific Vaginitis.
Ryall, Albert P.	Bedford,	Tenn.	Pneumonia.

NAME.	COUNTY.	STATE.	SUBJECT OF THESIS.
Santee, Eugene I.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Vaccination.
Schell, Joseph G.	Frederick,	Md.	Pneumonia.
Seymour, Fletcher T.	Fayette,	Tenn.	Scarlatina.
Sheilds, George W.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Typhus Fever.
Sibbet, Robert Lowry	Cumberland,	Pa.	Alimentary Secretions.
Smith, Linton	New Castle,	Del.	Epidemic Cholera.
Smith, Thomas J.	Salem,	N. J.	Abortion.
Smith, William H. Clay	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Continued Fever.
Smyth, Francis G.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Typhoid Fever.
Snodgrass, James F.	Chester,	Pa.	Typhoid Fever.
Spayd, Charles W.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Remittent Fever.
Spooner, Edward A. (M. D.)	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Infantile Alimentation.
Sproul, Obadiah Herbert	Hunterdon,	N. J.	Scarlatina.
Sterling, William H.	Burlington,	N. J.	Nature of Malaria.
Stiles, George M.	Burlington,	N. J.	Diphtheria.
Stillé Henry M.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	General Pathology of Diarrhoea.
Strawbridge, George	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Glaucoma.
Stryker, Samuel S., jr.,	Mercer,	N. J.	Hemiplegia.
Swain, Humphrey	Cape May,	N. J.	Typhoid Fever.
Tallon, John E. (M. D.)	Orleans,	La.	Variola.
Taylor, Isaac N.	Erie,	Pa.	Nutrition.
Thatcher, Edward C.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Carbuncle.
Thirwechter, William J.	Berks,	Pa.	Dyspepsia.
Thomas, Francis	Montgomery,	Md.	Signs of Pregnancy.
Thome, Charles V.	Lebanon,	Pa.	Rubeola.
Tonner, John Alexis	New Castle,	Del.	Hospital Gangrene.
Townsend, Stephen (M. D.)	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Intermittent Fever.
Tressler, Josiah E.	Perry,	Pa.	The Physician.
Van Buskirk, Michael B.	Monroe,	Pa.	Typhoid Fever.
Walker, Robert L.	Alleghany,	Pa.	Cinchona.
Ward, John W.	Salem,	N. J.	Acute Dysentery.
Weed, Ithamar B. (M. D.)	Meigs,	Ohio.	Cholera.
Weightman, John F.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Ovariotomy.
Weirick, William H.	Union,	Pa.	Digestion.
Wenger, Adam, jr.	Lancaster,	Pa.	Acute Pneumonia.
Weyand, Isaac S.	Cass,	Ind.	Opium.
Whedon, Robert A. (M. D.)	Lenawee,	Mich.	The M. D.
Whisler, Simon M.	Cumberland,	Pa.	Erysipelas.
Whitaker, Benjamin R.	Chester,	Pa.	Medicines.
Whittaker, James T.	Kenton,	Ky.	Reproduction.
White, John S.	Lancaster,	Pa.	Acute Pneumonia.
Wierich, Augustus, jr.	Jo Daviess,	Ill.	Dysentery.
Wiestling, John Weir	Dauphin,	Pa.	Intermittent Fever.
Wilson, Adam H.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Catarrh.
Wireback, Isaiah J.	Bucks,	Pa.	Typhoid Fever.
Wise, George G.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Typhus Fever.
Woodvine, Denton G.	Hampden,	Mass.	Scarlatina.
Yeakel, Isaac B.	Berks,	Pa.	Uræmia.
Yocum, Joseph J.	Schnylkill,	Pa.	Influence of the Mind in Medicine.
Zeigler, Elijah R.	Union,	Pa.	Medical Diagnosis.

At a Public Commencement, held in July, 1865, the following gentlemen received the Degree of Doctor of Medicine.

Drinker, Charles	Susquehanna,	Pa.	Pulmonary Phthisis.
Palethorp, Jno. H.	Philadelphia,	Pa.	Ergota.
Troxell, Francis P.	Lehigh,	Pa.	Diphtheria.

Total, 165.

THE JEFFERSON MEDICAL COLLEGE OF PHILADELPHIA.

THE FORTY-SECOND WINTER SESSION of Lectures will commence on Monday, the 8th of October, with a General Introductory Lecture by one of the Professors. The regular lectures will begin the day after. The Session will terminate on the last day of February.

CHARLES D. MEIGS, M. D., { Emeritus Professor of Obstetrics and Diseases of
Women and Children.

Institutes of Medicine, &c., ...	by Prof. ROBLEY DUNGLISON, M. D.
General, Descriptive, and Surgical Anatomy, ...	JOSEPH PANCOAST, M. D.
Institutes and Practice of Surgery, ...	SAMUEL D. GROSS, M. D.
Practice of Medicine, ...	S. HENRY DICKSON, M. D.
Obstetrics and Diseases of Women and Children, ...	ELLERSLIE WALLACE, M. D.
Chemistry, ...	B. HOWARD RAND, M. D.
Materia Medica and General Therapeutics, ...	JOHN B. BIDDLE, M. D.
Lecturer on Clinical Medicine, ...	J. M. DACOSTA, M. D.
Demonstrator of Anatomy, ...	WM. H. PANCOAST, M. D.

To enlarge the already abundant opportunities for CLINICAL INSTRUCTION, a Clinic will be held daily at the College—the Surgical department being conducted by Professors Gross and Pancoast; the Obstetrical by Professor Wallace; and the Medical by Dr. J. M. DACOSTA. The lectures are so arranged as to permit the student to attend the clinics of the Pennsylvania Hospital, and the Philadelphia Hospital.

The "Summer Course," which began on the second of April, and is conducted by Members of the Faculty in conjunction with others, will be resumed in September, after the recess in July and August, and be continued until the 6th of October.

FEES.

To each Member of the Faculty—as in all the schools of Philadel-	
phia and New York—\$20; in all, ...	\$140
Matriculation fee, ...	5
Graduation fee, ...	30

ROBLEY DUNGLISON, M. D.,

Dean of the Faculty.

LIST OF GRADUATES OF THE JEFFERSON MEDICAL COLLEGE
OF PHILADELPHIA.

At a public commencement, held on the 10th of March, 1866, the Degree of Doctor of MEDICINE was conferred on the following gentlemen by the Hon. Edward King, LL.D., President of the Institution; after which a valedictory address to the graduates was delivered by Prof. Rand:—

NAME.	STATE OR COUNTRY.	SUBJECT OF THESIS.
Alexander, William J.	Pennsylvania.	Spotted Fever.
Allis, Oscar Huntington	Pennsylvania.	Tetanus.
Applegate, Charles H.	Indiana.	Duties of Practitioners.
Arndt, Zaccheus P.	Pennsylvania.	Gonorrhœa.

NAME.	STATE OR COUNTRY.	SUBJECT OF THESIS.
Bard, Cephas L.	Pennsylvania.	Gunshot Wounds.
Barrett, Frederick	Pennsylvania.	Endocarditis.
Bartholomew, William	Pennsylvania.	Irritation and Sympathy.
Beane, George W.	Pennsylvania.	Gastritis.
Berntheizel, George W.	Pennsylvania.	Professional Adaptation.
Berry, Daniel	Illinois.	Pneumonia.
Bixler, Jacob R.	Pennsylvania.	Symptoms of Inflammation.
Blackwood, Thomas J.	Pennsylvania.	Menstruation.
Brehm, Samuel H.	Pennsylvania.	The Repair of Tissues.
Brother, Ferdinand (M. D.)	New Jersey.	Diphtheria.
Brown, J. Alphens	Ohio.	Dysentery.
Brown, Nathaniel W.	Pennsylvania.	Pain.
Bryant, John (M. D.)	Missouri.	Spotted Fever.
Buck, Benj. S.	Pennsylvania.	Gonorrhœa.
Buffington, Alexander L.	Pennsylvania.	Inflammation.
Burke, George W.	Pennsylvania.	Gunshot Wounds.
Burroughs, John E.	Texas.	Congestive Fever.
Butcher, Henry B.	Pennsylvania.	Gunshot Wounds.
Cabanne, James S.	Missouri.	Lupus.
Cheeseman, George	Pennsylvania.	Diphtheria.
Christy, James H.	Pennsylvania.	Typhoid Fever.
Clendinen, Moses W.	Illinois.	Toxicology.
Coffman, Victor H.	Iowa.	Typhus Fever.
Cogshall, Bela, jr.	Michigan.	Eclampsia Puerperalis.
Conery, William B.	Kentucky.	Hunterian Ligation to prevent Destruction of the Ear.
Culbertson, Samuel D.	Pennsylvania.	Erysipelas. [tive Inflammation.
Culbreth, George S.	Delaware.	The Study of Medicine.
Daingerfield, Joseph Faunt	Kentucky.	Auscultation in Pulmonary Diseases.
Le Roi		
Dare, George S.	Pennsylvania.	Erysipelas.
Dick, John W.	Pennsylvania.	History and Progress of Medicine.
Dodge, Samuel D.	Arkansas.	The Ear.
Donnelly, John F.	Pennsylvania.	Syphilis in Infants.
Dundore, Adam J.	Pennsylvania.	Morbili.
Easley, Andrew	Virginia.	Medical Ethics.
Ellison, L. Frank	Delaware.	Croup.
Ewing, James B.	Pennsylvania.	Treatment of Inflammation.
Ewing, John	Pennsylvania.	Scarlatina.
Ferguson, James B.	Canada West.	Physiology of Digestion.
Fitzgerald, J. A.	Indiana.	Inflammation.
Flood, James Ramsay	Canada West.	Opium, Magnum Dei Donum.
Foster, William S.	Pennsylvania.	Puerperal Fever.
Fritts, Thomas J. (M. D.)	Indiana.	Pathological Conditions of the Blood.
Fuller, Alson	North Carolina.	Diphtheria.
Gelwix, James Montgomery	Pennsylvania.	Menstruation.
Gibson, William, jr.	Pennsylvania.	Pertussis.
Gillespie, James L. (M.D.)	West Virginia.	Colic.
Gilpin, Fletcher	Pennsylvania.	Tonsillitis.
Gordon, James	New York.	Vis Medicatrix Naturæ.
Graham, George S.	Pennsylvania.	Coxalgia.
Gregg, James S.	Indiana.	Hospital Gangrene.
Gregg, Robert J.	Missouri.	Neuralgia.
Griffin, Tyler	Kentucky.	Oleum Morrhuæ.
Griggs, William O.	Pennsylvania.	The Principles of Surgery.
Guerrant, Richard P.	Kentucky.	Asiatic Cholera.
Guss, Isaac	Pennsylvania.	Spotted Fever.

NAME.	STATE OR COUNTRY.	SUBJECT OF THESIS.
Hamilton, Alexander P.	Kentucky.	Intermittent Fever.
Harmon, Byron R.	Pennsylvania.	Incompatibles.
Hassler, William A.	Pennsylvania.	Acute Dysentery.
Hill, John (M. D.)	Ohio.	Diphtheria.
Hockaday, William L.	Kentucky.	Wounds.
Hodgens, Samuel G.	Pennsylvania.	Nutrition.
Hoffman, Walter J.	Pennsylvania.	Zinc.
Hollenbach, Theodore F.	Pennsylvania.	The Young Obstetrician.
Hornor, Joseph H.	New Jersey.	Anæsthetics.
Huffman, D. Clark	Pennsylvania.	Physiological Effects of Motion.
Hunter, Thomas S.	Ohio.	Relations of Chemistry to Medicine.
Huston, Joseph H.	Pennsylvania.	Erysipelas.
Hutchins, Edward R.	New Hampshire.	Dengue.
Hyndman, Samuel E.	Ohio.	Urine.
Jackson, William M.	Pennsylvania.	Ménstruation.
Kennedy, Thomas J.	Tennessee.	Soteria Doctrina.
Kennedy, Robert S.	Pennsylvania.	Alcohol.
King, George A.	Pennsylvania.	Hospital Gangrene.
Klingensmith, Theodore P.	Pennsylvania.	Dyspepsia.
Knight, John	Pennsylvania.	Diagnosis.
Knipe, Septimus A.	Pennsylvania.	Hernia.
Koch, Frederick W.	Michigan.	Scrofula or Struma.
Landon, Hannibal (M.D.)	Ohio.	Erysipelas.
Lankford, Alvin P.	Missouri.	Septenary Periods.
Leech, Thomas F.	Indiana.	The Military Surgeon.
Levan, Daniel Henry	Pennsylvania.	Anæsthetics.
Lindley, Henry S.	Pennsylvania.	Dysentery.
Long, Robert W.	Indiana.	Medical Diagnosis.
Loughridge, Samuel O.	Ohio.	Dyspepsia.
Lynde, Uri Colvin (M. D.)	New York.	Acute Peritonitis.
Mackie, Benjamin S.	Louisiana.	Pneumonia.
Macpherson, William	Pennsylvania.	Malarial Diseases.
Madden, Edmund H.	New Jersey.	Resina Flava.
Magee, T. James	Pennsylvania.	Signs of Pregnancy.
Mason, Jos. Ritner (M.D.)	Pennsylvania.	Medical Diagnosis.
Matlack, Richard B.	Tennessee.	Remittent Fever.
Matter, George F.	Pennsylvania.	Acute Dysentery.
Maxwell, James A.	Pennsylvania.	Enteric Fever.
May, James Rundlet	New Hampshire.	Primary Syphilis.
McCormick, A. Y.	Maryland.	Bismuthi Subnitras.
McDowell, James W.	Illinois.	Luxation of the Hip-joint and the Agents which oppose its Reduction.
McElroy, James F.	Kentucky.	Cheerfulness.
McIntosh, John	Nova Scotia.	Scarlatina.
McMunn, John C.	Pennsylvania.	Diphtheria.
McQuesten, E. Forrest	New Hampshire.	Indigestion.
McVicker, James P.	Pennsylvania.	Scirrhus of the Mamma.
Mengle, Isaac L.	Pennsylvania.	Etiology of Disease.
Meredith, William H.	Pennsylvania.	Dysentery.
Moore, Isaac H.	Pennsylvania.	The Tongue Symptomatic of Disease.
Mueller, Henry	Ohio.	Moschus.
Munn, Charles W.	Pennsylvania.	Diabetes Mellitus.
Murray, Ransom N.	Michigan.	Pneumonia.
Musser, John Henry	Pennsylvania.	Iodine.
Napheys, George H.	Pennsylvania.	Intussusceptio Intestinorum.
Newberry, Thomas L.	Kentucky.	Typhoid Fever.
Newell, Wm. M. (M. D.)	Illinois.	Evidences of Design in the Organism of
Newton, P. C.	Kansas.	Mountain Fever. [Man.

NAME.	STATE OR COUNTRY.	SUBJECT OF THESIS.
O'Leary, Arthur	New York.	Strabismus.
Orvis, Charles	Illinois.	Pneumonia.
Owens, Benjamin F.	Kentucky.	Scarlatina.
Patterson, Edwin S.	Pennsylvania.	Rubeola.
Patton, Frederick H.	West Virginia.	Life.
Peck, Alexander L.	New Brunswick.	The Human Fæces.
Perkins, Finis M.	Kentucky.	Pneumonia.
Perry, Matthias Rizer	Kentucky.	Contagion.
Peterson, Henry B.	Kentucky.	Air, and its Effects on Health.
Peyton, John C.	Tennessee.	Stricture of the Urethra.
Phillips, William D.	Arkansas.	Epilepsy.
Price, Daniel T.	Mississippi.	Chloroform.
Rahausser, George G.	Pennsylvania.	Podagra.
Rebman, Lawrence S.	Delaware.	Dislocations.
Reed, Jacob, jr.	Pennsylvania.	Alkaline Sulphites in Zymotic Diseases.
Reed, Jesse J.	Pennsylvania.	Scarlatina.
Rhoads, George W.	Indiana.	Digestion.
Righter, Washington	Pennsylvania.	Opium.
Roberts, Hiram S.	Illinois.	Camp Diarrhœa.
Rodgers, David C. C.	Mississippi.	Disease and its Causes.
Ross, James Brice	Kentucky.	Primary Syphilis.
Russell, Ephraim P.	Kentucky.	Cerebro-spinal Meningitis.
Russell, Ezra R.	Illinois.	Gonorrhœa.
Sallade, Franklin L.	Pennsylvania.	Enteric Fever.
Sears, Alfred A.	Illinois.	Nicotiana Tabacum.
Simans, William R.	Pennsylvania.	Dyspepsia.
Shaeffer, Brett Randolph	Mississippi.	Digestion.
Shurtleff, Benjamin (M.D.)	Illinois.	Gonorrhœa distinct from Non-Specific [Urethritis].
Snodgrass, James H.	Pennsylvania.	Verruæ.
Stockton, Thomas C. M.	Pennsylvania.	Inflammation.
Thackeray, William T.	Pennsylvania.	Hospital Gangrene.
Townsend, Ralph M.	Pennsylvania.	Cinchona.
Trout, Henry S.	Pennsylvania.	Hereditary Transmission of Disease.
Warren, John S.	New Hampshire.	Angæmia.
Way, Jacob H.	Pennsylvania.	Alveolar Abscess.
Weathers, Lucien V.	Kentucky.	Peritonitis.
Webb, John W.	New Jersey.	Vexations and Pleasures of the Physic.
Webb, William H.	Pennsylvania.	Enteric or Typhoid Fever. [cian.
Weber, Reinhard H.	Germany.	Diphtheria
Wheeler, William G.	Kentucky.	Medical Influence of the Mind.
White, James M.	West Virginia.	Mercury.
Whitehead, Alfred M.	Ohio.	Scarlatina.
Wilson, James E.	Pennsylvania.	Rheumatism.
Wilson, John C.	Pennsylvania.	Idiopathic Erysipelas.
Wilson, N. M.	Pennsylvania.	Dysentery.
Wilson, William M.	Kentucky.	Man and his Organization.
Witmer, Abraham H.	Pennsylvania.	Bronchitis.
Worthington, David J.	Pennsylvania.	The Circulation.
Yundt, W. Scott	Pennsylvania.	Gunshot Wounds of the Joints.

Of these there were from—Pennsylvania, 81; Kentucky, 16; Illinois, 9; Ohio, 8; Indiana, 7; New Jersey, 4; Missouri, 4; New Hampshire, 4; Michigan, 3; Delaware, 3; West Virginia, 3; New York, 3; Tennessee, 3; Mississippi, 3; Arkansas, 2; Canada West, 2; Texas, 1; Iowa, 1; Virginia, 1; North Carolina, 1; Louisiana, 1; Maryland, 1; Nova Scotia, 1; Kansas, 1; New Brunswick, 1; Germany, 1. Total, 165.

The number of Matriculates of the Session 1865-6 was 428.

COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS AND SURGEONS.

CORNER OF TWENTY-THIRD STREET AND FOURTH AVENUE, NEW YORK.

ANNUAL ANNOUNCEMENT.—SIXTIETH SESSION, 1866-67.

During the Spring, Summer, and Fall, medical instruction is carried on by means of Cliniques delivered at the College and at the various Hospitals and Infirmaryes of the city, and a Preliminary Course of Lectures immediately preceding the Regular Winter Session.

FACULTY OF MEDICINE.

EDWARD DELAFIELD, M. D., President, and Professor Emeritus of Obstetrics.
 ROBERT WATTS, M. D., Professor of Anatomy.
 WILLARD PARKER, M. D., Professor of the Principles and Practice of Surgery and Surgical Anatomy.
 THOMAS M. MARKOE, M. D., Professor Adjunct of Surgery.
 ALONZO CLARK, M. D., Professor of Pathology and Practical Medicine.
 JOHN C. DALTON, M. D., Professor of Physiology and Microscopic Anatomy.
 SAMUEL ST. JOHN, M. D., Professor of Chemistry.
 T. GAILLARD THOMAS, M. D., Professor of Obstetrics and the Diseases of Women and Children.
 JOHN T. METCALFE, M. D., Professor of Clinical Medicine.
 HENRY B. SANDS, M. D., Lecturer Adjunct on Anatomy.
 FREEMAN J. BUMSTEAD, M. D., Lecturer on Materia Medica and on Venereal Diseases.
 ERSKINE MASON, M. D., Demonstrator of Anatomy and Curator of the College Museum.

In the plan of instruction adopted in this institution, Clinical Teaching constitutes an important and prominent feature, all the practical subjects treated of in the Didactic Course being fully illustrated at the bedside. In the furtherance of this object, the extensive Hospitals of New York, of which the New York Hospital, the Bellevue Hospital, the Charity Hospital, Blackwell's Island, and the New York Eye Infirmary are the largest and most efficient, furnish ample fields for instruction and study. To all of these the Faculty of the College resort for the purposes of practical instruction, Cliniques being held daily in one or more of them—in the Bellevue Hospital by Professors CLARK, PARKER, METCALFE, THOMAS, and SANDS; in the New York Hospital by Professors PARKER, MARKOE, and SANDS; at the Charity Hospital, Blackwell's Island, by Drs. BUMSTEAD and MASON; and at the New York Eye Infirmary by Drs. BUMSTEAD and SANDS.

Besides the Clinical Lectures given at the Hospitals, as above, there are six Cliniques each week at the College Building.

The *Preliminary Fall Course* for 1866 will commence on Monday, the 10th of September, and continue five weeks, until the opening of the Regular Course in October. This course will consist of from two to three lectures daily on special subjects, in addition to the College Cliniques.

REGULAR COURSE.

The Regular Course of Lectures for the Session of 1866-7, will commence on Monday, the 15th of October, 1866, and will continue until the second Thursday of March following. This course will consist of from five to six daily Lectures in the various departments of Medicine and Surgery, both elementary and practical, together with Daily Clinical Lectures, delivered both at the College and at the larger Hospitals.

FEES.

Matriculation Fee, \$5.

Fees for the full Course of Lectures by all the Professors, \$140; for each separate ticket, \$20.

Ticket of the Demonstrator of Anatomy, \$10.

Graduation Fee, \$30.

The Tickets are expected to be taken out at the beginning of the Session.

Letters requiring information should be directed to the *Secretary of the Faculty, College of Physicians and Surgeons, corner of Twenty-Third Street and Fourth Avenue, New York.*

BOYLSTON MEDICAL PRIZE QUESTIONS.

The Boylston Medical Committee, appointed by the President and Fellows of Harvard University, consists of the following Physicians:—

EDWARD REYNOLDS, M. D.	J. B. S. JACKSON, M. D.	CHARLES G. PUTNAM, M. D.
JOHN JEFFRIES, M. D.	J. MASON WARREN, M. D.	MORRILL WYMAN, M. D.
S. D. TOWNSEND, M. D.	D. H. STORER, M. D.	HENRY J. BIGELOW, M. D.

At the Annual Meeting held June 6th, the Premium was awarded to S. G. Webber, M. D., for the best Dissertation on *Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis*.

The following are the questions proposed for 1867:—

1. *Pathology and Treatment of Diseases of the Skin.*
2. *Amputation, its Varieties and Occasional Results, Gangrene and Necrosis.*

Dissertations on these subjects must be transmitted, postpaid, to John Jeffries, M. D., on or before the first Wednesday in April, 1867.

The following questions are proposed for 1868:—

1. *The Physical and Mental Influences of the United States and Canada upon Immigrant European Races.*
2. *Question of the Contagiousness of Asiatic Cholera in the United States.*

The author of the best dissertation on either of the subjects proposed for 1867 will be entitled to a premium of *ninety dollars*, or a gold medal of that value.

The author of the best dissertation on either of the subjects proposed for 1868 will be entitled to a premium of *one hundred dollars*, or a gold medal.

Each dissertation must be accompanied by a sealed packet, on which shall be written some device or sentence, and within which shall be inclosed the author's name and residence. The same device or sentence is to be written on the dissertation to which the packet is attached.

The writer of each dissertation is expected to transmit his communication to the President, John Jeffries, M. D., in a legible handwriting, within the time specified.

All unsuccessful dissertations are deposited with the Secretary, from whom they may be obtained, with the sealed packet unopened, if called for within one year after they have been received.

By an order adopted in 1826, the Secretary was directed to publish annually the following votes:—

1st. That this Board do not consider themselves as approving the doctrines contained in any of the dissertations to which premiums may be adjudged.

2d. That in case of publication of a successful dissertation, the author to be considered as bound to print the above vote in connection therewith.

J. MASON WARREN,
Secretary.

Publishers of Newspapers and Medical Journals throughout the country are respectfully requested to notice the above.

FALL AND WINTER EXAMINATIONS.

DRS. DUNGLISON, DUER, AND MAURY,
1026 CHESTNUT ST., PHILADELPHIA.

The Fall Course of Examinations will begin on Monday, September 3d, and continue until the commencement of the Winter Examinations in October.

The regular Winter Course for the session of 1866-7, on all the branches taught in the Medical Schools, will commence early in October. The Course will be fully illustrated by a Cabinet of *Materia Medica*, Plates, Specimens, &c.

FEE \$30.

For further particulars apply to

RICHARD J. DUNGLISON, M. D., 39 S. Eleventh St.
EDWARD L. DUER, M. D., 1704 Arch St.
FRANK F. MAURY, M. D., 1005 Walnut St.

BELLEVUE HOSPITAL MEDICAL COLLEGE—CITY OF NEW YORK.

SESSIONS FOR 1866-67.

The Faculty take pleasure in referring to the cumulative evidence of the importance of the movement in behalf of Medical Education inaugurated by this College. The class in attendance during the Session of 1865-66, numbered 470, the number of graduates being 172.

To meet the requirements of so large a class, ample accommodations are now afforded in the new building within the hospital grounds, erected for the Bureau of Out-door Relief--a new department of public charity which, in addition to its more immediate beneficial results, will extend the resources of practical instruction.

The Faculty would invite the attention of the profession to another important movement designed to promote the interests of Medical Education, viz., providing ample clinical and didactic instruction throughout the collegiate year. In accordance with a plan which was entertained when the College was established, a Summer Course of Instruction has been added to the Autumnal and the Winter Course; and for the Summer Session a corps of Professors and Lecturers have been specially appointed. The usual preliminary Autumnal Session will commence on Wednesday, September 12, 1866, and continue four weeks. Instruction during this term will, as heretofore, consist of didactic lectures on special subjects, and daily clinical lectures. The lectures during this term will be given exclusively by members of the Faculty. The Regular Winter Session will commence on Wednesday, October 10, 1866, and end about the first of March, 1867. The Summer Session will commence on the first of April, 1867, and end in the following July. There will thus be two vacations in the collegiate year, viz., a spring vacation of a month, and a summer vacation of about two months. Attendance on the Summer Courses of instruction is entirely voluntary, but it is designed to offer in these courses abundant inducements to those who may desire to prosecute their studies in this city during the summer.

The Faculty announce with pleasure the appointment of W. H. Van Buren, M. D., as Professor of Diseases of the Genito-Urinary System. Professor Van Buren will take part in both the Winter and the Summer Session.

FACULTY.

ISAAC E. TAYLOR, M. D., *President*.

AUSTIN FLINT, JR., M. D., *Secretary*.

JAMES R. WOOD, M. D., Professor of Operative Surgery and Surgical Pathology.

FRANK H. HAMILTON, M. D., Professor of Military Surgery, Fractures and Dislocations, and the Principles of Surgery.

LEWIS A. SAYRE, M. D., Professor of Orthopedic Surgery.

ALEXANDER B. MOTT, M. D., Professor of Surgical Anatomy.

W. H. VAN BUREN, M. D., Professor of Diseases of the Genito-Urinary System.

ISAAC E. TAYLOR, M. D.,

GEORGE T. ELLIOT, M. D.,

FORDYCE BARKER, M. D.,

} Professors of Obstetrics and the Diseases of Women
and Children.

BENJAMIN W. MCCREADY, M. D., Professor of Materia Medica and Therapeutics.

STEPHEN SMITH, M. D., Professor of Descriptive and Comparative Anatomy.

AUSTIN FLINT, M. D., Professor of the Principles and Practice of Medicine.

R. OGDEN DOREMUS, M. D., Professor of Chemistry and Toxicology.

AUSTIN FLINT, JR., M. D., Professor of Physiology and Microscopy.

N. R. MOSELY, M. D., Demonstrator of Anatomy.

J. W. SOUTHACK, JR., M. D., Assistant Demonstrator of Anatomy and Prosector to the Chair of Operative Surgery and Surgical Pathology.

A. W. WILKINSON, M. D., Assistant to Chair of Chemistry and Toxicology.

HENRY G. PIFFARD, M. D., Assistant to Chair of Principles and Practice of Medicine.

LUCIEN DAMAINVILLE, M. D., Assistant to Chair of Military Surgery, etc. etc.

FACULTY OF SUMMER SESSION.

HENRY D. NOYES, M. D., Professor of Ophthalmology.

J. LEWIS SMITH, M. D., Lecturer on Morbid Anatomy.

FOSTER SWIFT, M. D., Lecturer on Diseases of the Skin.

Prof. W. H. VAN BUREN, M. D., Lecturer on Diseases of the Genito-Urinary System.

Prof. R. OGDEN DOREMUS, M. D., Lecturer on Animal Chemistry.

Prof. AUSTIN FLINT, JR., M. D., Lecturer on Microscopical Anatomy.

Prof. GEORGE T. ELLIOT, JR., M. D., Lecturer on Diseases of Children.

A distinctive feature of the method of instruction in this College, is the union of

BELLEVUE HOSPITAL MEDICAL COLLEGE—Continued.

clinical and didactic teaching. All the lectures are given within the hospital grounds. During the Regular Winter Session, in addition to four didactic lectures on every week day, except Saturday, two or three hours are daily allotted to clinical instruction. The union of clinical and didactic teaching will also be carried out in the Summer Session; the newly appointed teachers in this Faculty being physicians and surgeons to the great Charity Hospital on Blackwell's Island. Further details respecting the method of instruction, and the vast opportunities for the study of disease, witnessing surgical and obstetrical operations, the prosecution of anatomy, etc., afforded by the Bellevue Hospital, the Blackwell's Island Charity Hospital, and other public institutions of the great Metropolis, will be contained in the annual circular to be issued during the summer.

Fees for tickets to all the lectures during the Autumnal and the Regular Winter Session,* \$140.

Tickets for any of the several departments may be taken out separately.

Matriculation fee, \$5.

Demonstrator's ticket, \$10.

Graduation fee, \$30.

Students who have attended two full courses in other accredited schools, receive all the tickets for \$70, exclusive of the Matriculation fee. Students who have attended two full courses in this College, or after one full course in this College, having previously attended a full course in some other accredited schools, are required to matriculate only. Graduates of other accredited schools, after three years, dating from the time of graduation to the end of the term, are required to matriculate only; prior to three years they receive a general ticket for \$70.

Payment of fees is invariably required at the commencement of the Session. There are no exceptions to this rule.

The Fees and Regulations for the Summer Session will be announced in the annual circular.

Students, on arriving in the city, are requested to report at once at Bellevue Hospital, situated on the East River, between 26th and 28th Streets, and inquire for the Janitor of the College, who will take pains to aid them in securing comfortable accommodations, without delay.

Entrance to the Hospital is on 26th Street.

For the Annual Circular, giving further information, address the Secretary of the Faculty, Professor AUSTIN FLINT, Jr., Bellevue Hospital Medical College.

SUMMER SCHOOL OF MEDICINE.

No. 920 CHESTNUT STREET, PHILADELPHIA.

ROBERT BOLLING, M. D., JAS. H. HUTCHINSON, M. D., H. LENOX HODGE, M. D., EDWARD A. SMITH, M. D., D. MURRAY CHESTON, M. D., HORACE WILLIAMS, M. D.

The Summer School of Medicine will begin its second term on March 1st, 1866, and students may enjoy its privileges without cessation until October.

The regular Course of *Examinations* and *Lectures* will be given during April, May, June, and September, upon

ANATOMY,	OBSTETRICS,
SURGERY,	MATERIA MEDICA,
CHEMISTRY,	PRACTICE OF MEDICINE.
PHYSIOLOGY,	

The subjects will be studied by the aid of Specimens, Manikins, Demonstrations, and Clinical Examinations of Patients.

Students will be given access to the Pennsylvania, Episcopal, and Children's Hospitals. The employment of the Microscope, and the microscopic appearance of the tissues and fluids in health and disease, with the chemical tests and reactions, will also be taught.

FEE \$50.

For further information apply to

H. LENOX HODGE, M. D.,
N. W. corner Ninth and Walnut Streets.

* The fees in this College are raised in common with the Colleges of New York and Brooklyn, Philadelphia and Boston.

FISKE MEDICAL PRIZE QUESTION.

The Trustees of the Fiske Fund, at the Annual Meeting of the Rhode Island Medical Society, held in Providence, June 6th instant, gave notice that no award had been made on the questions proposed by them for the present year.

They propose the following subjects for 1867, viz:—

1st. PYÆMIA; CAUSES, PATHOLOGY AND TREATMENT.

2d. VACCINATION. WHY DOES IT EVER FAIL TO GIVE PERFECT PROTECTION?

3d. CHOLERA. IS IT INFECTIOUS?

For the best dissertation on either of these subjects the Trustees will pay a premium of One Hundred Dollars.

Every competitor for a premium is expected to conform to the following regulations, viz:—

To forward to the Secretary of the Trustees, on or before the first day of May, 1867, free of all expense, a copy of his dissertation, with a motto written thereupon, and also accompanying a sealed packet, having the same motto inscribed upon the outside, and his name and place of residence within.

Previously to receiving the premium awarded, the author of the successful dissertation must transfer to the Trustees all his right, title, and interest in and to the same, for the use, benefit, and behoof of the Fiske Fund.

Letters accompanying the unsuccessful dissertations will be destroyed by the Trustees, unopened, and the dissertations may be procured by their respective authors, if application be made therefor within three months.

SYLVANUS CLAPP, M. D., North Providence,	} Trustees.
OTIS BULLOCK, M. D., Warren,	
J. W. C. ELY, M. D., Providence,	

S. AUG. ARNOLD, M. D., Providence, *Secretary*.

UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND.

The Fifty-Ninth Session of the School of Medicine, in the University of Maryland, will commence on Monday, the 15th of October, 1866, and will end on the 1st of March, 1867.

FACULTY OF PHYSIC.

NATHAN R. SMITH, M. D., Professor of Surgery.

WM. E. A. AIKIN, M. D., LL.D., Professor of Chemistry and Pharmacy.

G. W. MILTENBERGER, M. D., Professor of Obstetrics and the Diseases of Women and Children.

RICHARD MCSHERRY, M. D., Professor of Principles and Practice of Medicine.

CHRISTOPHER JOHNSTON, M. D., Professor of General, Descriptive, and Surgical Anatomy.

SAMUEL C. CHEW, M. D., Professor of Materia Medica and Therapeutics.

FRANK DONALDSON, M. D., Professor of Physiology, Hygiene, and General Pathology.

JAMES H. BUTLER, M. D., Demonstrator of Anatomy and Adjunct to the Professor of Anatomy.

The fees for the full course are \$105.00. For Matriculation, \$5.00. For Practical Anatomy, \$10.00.

The Baltimore Infirmary is a large Hospital attached to the College. The Infirmary is an admirable school for clinical instruction, which is open every day throughout the year to the students, where they may witness surgical operations, observe practice, and attend clinical lectures by the various professors at all seasons, without any additional charge. There is always a staff of graduates resident in the Infirmary, besides a limited number of students who are admitted as Clinical Assistants.

Anatomical material is abundant for the study of practical anatomy.

Circulars containing fuller information may be obtained by application to any member of the Faculty.

GEORGE W. MILTENBERGER, M. D., *Dean*.

BALTIMORE, March, 1866.

PARRISH'S PHARMACY.—Enlarged Edition.

A TREATISE ON PHARMACY,

DESIGNED AS A TEXT-BOOK FOR THE STUDENT, AND AS A GUIDE FOR THE PHYSICIAN AND PHARMACEUTIST, CONTAINING THE OFFICIAL AND MANY UNOFFICIAL FORMULAS, AND NUMEROUS EXAMPLES OF EXTEMPORANEOUS PRESCRIPTIONS.

BY EDWARD PARRISH,

Graduate in Pharmacy, Professor of Materia Medica in the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy, &c.

Third edition, thoroughly revised and improved, with important additions.

With two hundred and thirty-eight illustrations.

In one large octavo volume, of 850 closely printed pages, strongly done up in extra cloth. Price \$5 00.

The delay in the appearance of this new edition has been caused by the necessity of incorporating in it the results of the new U. S. Pharmacopœia, together with all other improvements and discoveries in pharmaceutical science. This has been thoroughly accomplished, and the increased size of the volume shows the care with which it has been brought up to the most advanced state of practical knowledge. The work has long been admitted to be indispensable, not only to the pharmacist, but to the physician who is compelled to dispense his own prescriptions, and the very great favor with which it has been received has enabled the author, in successive revisions, to adapt it completely to the objects proposed, and to condense in its ample pages a vast amount of practical information, not elsewhere, perhaps, accessible, especially with regard to our native vegetable remedies. The plan of the volume may be gathered from the following

SUMMARY OF THE CONTENTS.

PART I.—PRELIMINARY.

- CHAP. I. Furniture and Implements necessary to the Dispensing Office or Shop.
- II. The United States Pharmacopœia.
- III. Weights, Measures, and Sp. Gravity.

PART II.—GALENICAL PHARMACY.

- CHAP. I. The different parts of Plants, their Collection and Desiccation.
- II. On the Powdering of Drugs, and on Powders.
- III. On Solution and Filtration.
- IV. The Medicated Waters.
- V. Maceration and the Infusions.
- VI. Percolation, or the Displacement Process.
- VII. Tinctures.
- VIII. Medicated Wines, Vinegars, Elixirs, and Cordials.
- IX. Preparations of Opium.
- X. The Generation of Heat for Pharmaceutical purposes.
- XI. Measuring and Regulating Heat, and on the Decuctions.
- XII. Evaporation and the Extracts.
- XIII. Fluid Extracts and Oleoresins.
- XIV. Syrups and Honey.
- XV. Conserves, Confections, Electuaries, Pastes, Lozenges, and Candies.
- XVI. Extracta Resina and "Concentrated Remedies."
- XVII. Distillation, Distilled Products, and Perfumery.

PART III. INORGANIC PHARMACEUTICAL CHEMISTRY.

- CHAP. I. On Chemical Processes.
- II. The Non-metallic Elements and their Medicinal Preparations.
- III. The Inorganic Acids.
- IV. The Alkalies and their Salts.

CHAP. V. The Earths and their Preparations.

- VI. Iron and Manganese.
- VII. Preparations of Copper, Zinc, Nickel, and Cadmium.
- VIII. Lead, Silver, Bismuth.
- IX. Antimony, Arsenic.
- X. Mercury, Gold, Platinum.

PART IV.—PHARMACY IN ITS RELATION TO ORGANIC CHEMISTRY.

- CHAP. I. Ligneous Fibre and its Derivatives.
- II. Farinaceous, Mucilaginous, and Saccharine Principles.
- III. Albuminous, and similar Principles, and certain Animal Products.
- IV. Fermentation, Alcohol, and Ethers.
- V. Fixed Oils and Fats.
- VI. Volatile Oils, Camphors, and Resins.
- VII. Organic Acids.
- VIII. Organic Alkalies, or Alkaloids.
- IX. Neutral Organic Principles.

PART V. EXTEMPORANEOUS PHARMACY.

- CHAP. I. On Prescriptions.
- II. On the Art of Selecting and Combining Medicines.
- III. On Powders, Pills, Suppositories, &c.
- IV. Liquid Preparations, Solutions, Mixtures, &c.
- V. Syptic and Depilatory Powders, Lotions, Collyries, Injections, Enemas, Gargles, Baths, Inhalations, and Fumigations.
- VI. Cerates, Ointments, and Liniments.
- VII. Plasters, Plasmata, and Cataplasms.
- VIII. On Dispensing and Compounding Prescriptions.

APPENDIX.

On the Management of the Sick Chamber—Preparations of Articles of Diet—Recipes for Important Popular Medicines.

The thoroughness with which this very complete plan has been filled out may be judged from the fact that the Index contains about 4,700 items. Under the head of Acids there are 312 references; under Emplastrum, 36; Extracts, 159; Lozenges, 25; Mixtures, 55; Pills, 56; Syrups, 131; Tinctures, 138; Unguentum, 57, &c. &c. It thus becomes a storehouse of pharmaceutical knowledge, to which the physician can at all times refer with the certainty of finding the latest practical information on all subjects coming within its scope.

MACLISE'S SURGICAL ANATOMY.

SURGICAL ANATOMY.

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In one volume, very large imperial quarto;

With 68 large and splendid plates, drawn in the best style and beautifully colored, containing 190 Figures, many of them the size of life, together with copious explanatory letter-press.

Strongly and handsomely bound in extra cloth, price \$14.

As no complete work of the kind has heretofore been published in the English language, the present volume will supply a want long felt in this country of an accurate and comprehensive Atlas of Surgical Anatomy, to which the student and practitioner can at all times refer to ascertain the exact relative positions of the various portions of the human frame towards each other and to the surface, as well as their abnormal deviations. The importance of such a work to the student, in the absence of anatomical material, and to the practitioner when about attempting an operation, is evident. Notwithstanding the large size, beauty, and finish of the very numerous illustrations, it will be observed that the price is so low as to place it within the reach of all members of the profession.

LIST OF PLATES.

- Pl. 1 and 2. Thorax and relative position of its contained parts—The Lungs, Heart, and larger Bloodvessels.
 Pl. 3 and 4. Superficial Cervical and Facial Regions, and relative position of the principal Nerves, Bloodvessels, &c.
 Pl. 5 and 6. Deep Cervical and Facial Regions, and relative position of the principal Bloodvessels, Nerves, &c.
 Pl. 7 and 8. Subclavian and Carotid Regions, and relative anatomy of their contents.
 Pl. 9 and 10. Episternal or Tracheal Region, and relative position of its main Bloodvessels, Nerves, &c.
 Pl. 11 and 12. Axillary and Brachial Regions, and relative position of their contained parts.
 Pl. 13 and 14. Surgical Forms of the Male and Female Axillæ compared.
 Pl. 15 and 16. Bends of the Elbow and Forearm, showing the relative position of the Vessels and Nerves.
 Pl. 17, 18, and 19. Surgical Dissection of the Wrist and Hand.
 Pl. 20 and 21. Relative position of the Cranial, Nasal, Oral, and Pharyngeal Cavities.
 Pl. 22. Relative position of Superficial Organs of Thorax and Abdomen.
 Pl. 23. Relative position of Deeper Organs of Thorax and Abdomen.
 Pl. 24. Relations of the principal Bloodvessels to the Viscera of the Thoracic-Abdominal Cavity.
 Pl. 25. Relation of the principal Bloodvessels of the Thorax and Abdomen to the Osseous Skeleton.
 Pl. 26. Relation of the Internal Parts to the External Surface.
 Pl. 27. Superficial Parts and Bloodvessels of the Inguino-Femoral Region.
 Pl. 28 and 29. First, Second, Third, and Fourth Layers of the Inguinal Region.
 Pl. 30 and 31. Fifth, Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Layers of the Inguinal Region.
 Pl. 32, 33, and 34. Oblique or External, and Direct or Internal Inguinal Hernia.
 Pl. 35, 36, 37, and 38. Distinctive Diagnosis between External and Internal Inguinal Hernia, Taxis, Seat of Stricture, and Operation.
 Pl. 39 and 40. Nature of Congenital and Infantile Inguinal Hernia and Hydrocele.
 Pl. 41 and 42. Origin and Progress of Inguinal Hernia in general.
 Pl. 43 and 44. Femoral Hernia—Seat of Stricture.
 Pl. 45 and 46. Origin and Progress of Femoral Hernia—Diagnosis, Taxis, and Operation.
 Pl. 47. Principal Bloodvessels and Nerves of the Iliac and Femoral Regions.
 Pl. 48 and 49. Relative Anatomy of the Male Pelvic Organs.
 Pl. 50 and 51. Superficial Structures of the Male Perinæum.
 Pl. 52 and 53. Deep Structures of the Male Perinæum—Lateral Operation of Lithotomy.
 Pl. 54, 55, and 56. Male Bladder and Urethra—Lateral and Bilateral Lithotomy compared.
 Pl. 57 and 58. Deformities of the Prepuce and Urethra—Strictures and Mechanical Obstructions of the Urethra.
 Pl. 59 and 60. Strictures and Obstructions of the Urethra—False Passages—Enlargements and Deformities of the Prostate.
 Pl. 61 and 62. Deformities of the Prostate—Distortions and Obstructions of the Prostatic Urethra.
 Pl. 63 and 64. Deformities of the Bladder—Sounding for Stone—Catheterism—Puncturing the Bladder above the Pubes.
 Pl. 65 and 66. Popliteal Space and Posterior Crural Region.
 Pl. 67 and 68. Anterior Crural Region—Ankle—Foot.

The universal commendation with which this work has been favored by the medical press in England and the United States, and the very large sale which it has had, sufficiently show that the author has satisfactorily carried out the very complete plan of the volume, and that it supplies a want long felt by the student and practitioner.

DALTON'S PHYSIOLOGY—New Edition—Late Issued.

A TREATISE ON HUMAN PHYSIOLOGY;

DESIGNED FOR THE USE OF STUDENTS AND PRACTITIONERS OF MEDICINE.

By JOHN C. DALTON, JR., M.D.,

Professor of Physiology and Microscopic Anatomy in the College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York.

THIRD EDITION, REVISED AND ENLARGED.

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In one beautifully printed octavo volume of over 700 pages, extra cloth, \$5 25.

"In the present edition of this work the general plan and arrangement of the two former ones are retained. The improvements and additions which have been introduced consist in the incorporation into the text of certain new facts and discoveries, relating mainly to details, which have made their appearance within the last three years."—*Author's Preface.*

That a third edition of this excellent work should be called for in the short period of time which has elapsed since it was first issued, is the best proof of its intrinsic value and of the high estimate placed upon it by the medical profession.—*American Med. Journal*, July, 1864.

We know of no work on physiology that we can recommend more earnestly than the one before us. It is the production of the most accomplished representative of that science in America—a production of which Americans have reason to be proud. We are acquainted with no European work on the subject to which we would give the preference as a text-book for the student.—*Pacific Med. and Surg. Journal*, May, 1864.

This last edition brings us fully up to the knowledge of the physiological science of to-day, and by leaving out much that, though true and interesting, is unnecessary to a thorough understanding of the workings of the human organism, gives us the practical points in such a way that they are easily understood, and, being unencumbered by this useless covering, are, as naked facts, not likely to slip from the grasp of the student. No better text-book on Physiology has ever been written.—*St. Louis Med. and Surg. Journal*, June, 1864.

One of the most concise and valuable works on human physiology in the English language.—*Chicago Med. Examiner*, April, 1864.

But we may say this, that it appears to contain all that is most firmly established as physiological truth, and that what we observe to be omitted chiefly consists of observations, the accuracy of which has been challenged, or opinions which have yet to obtain the sanction which time alone confers. We think that a book like this is about the best that a student could read during the first year of his curriculum.—*Med. Times and Gazette*, London, Sept. 10, 1864.

This system of physiology, both from the excellence of the arrangement studiously observed throughout every page, and the clear, lucid, and instructive manner in which each subject is treated, promises to form one of the most generally received class-books in the English language. It is, in fact, a most admirable epitome of all the really important discoveries that have always been received as incontestable truths, as well as of those which have been recently added to our stock of knowledge on this subject. We will, however, proceed to give a few extracts from

the book itself, as a specimen of its style and composition, and this, we conceive, will be quite sufficient to awaken a general interest in a work which is immeasurably superior in its details to the majority of those of the same class to which it belongs. In its purity of style and elegance of composition it may safely take its place with the very best of our English classics; while in accuracy of description it is impossible that it could be surpassed. In every line is beautifully shadowed forth the emanations of the polished scholar, whose reflections are clothed in a garb as interesting as they are impressive, with the one predominant feeling appearing to pervade the whole—an anxious desire to please and at the same time to instruct.—*Dublin Quarterly Journal of Med. Sciences.*

The work before us, however, in our humble judgment, is precisely what it purports to be, and will answer admirably the purpose for which it is intended. It is *par excellence* a text-book, and the best text-book in this department that we have ever seen. We have carefully read the book, and speak of its merits from a more than a cursory perusal. Looking back upon the work we have just finished, we must say a word concerning the excellence of its illustrations. No department is so dependent upon good illustrations, and those which keep pace with our knowledge of the subject, as that of physiology. The wood-cuts in the work before us are the best we have ever seen, and, being original, serve to illustrate precisely what is desired.—*Buffalo Med. Journal.*

A book of genuine merit like this deserves hearty praise before subjecting it to any minute criticism. We are not prepared to find any fault with its design until we have had more time to appreciate its merits as a manual for daily consultation, and to weigh its statements and conclusions more deliberately. Its excellences we are sure of; its defects we have yet to discover. It is a work highly honorable to its author, to his talents, his industry, his training, to the institution with which he is connected, and to American science.—*Boston Med. and Surg. Journal.*

A new book and a first-rate one—an original book, and one which cannot be too highly appreciated, and which we are proud to see emanating from our country's press. It is by an author who, though young, is considerably famous for physiological research, and who in this work has erected for himself an enduring monument—a token at once of his labor and his success.—*Nashville Medical Journal.*

THE
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TO READERS AND CORRESPONDENTS.

ALL articles intended for the *Original Department* of this Journal must be communicated to it for publication *exclusively*.

Contributors who design to favour us with original articles for the next No. should forward them before the 1st of November.

Compensation is allowed for original articles and reviews, *except* when illustrations or extra copies are desired. A *limited* number of extra copies will be furnished, if the request for them be made when the communication is sent. The extensive circulation of this journal renders extra copies comparatively of little value to authors, who only desire their observations made known to their professional brethren.

Communications are on hand from Drs. J. D. Jackson, Shoyer, Shepard, Daniels, Mathis, Black, and Weist.

The following works have been received:—

Sore Throat: its Nature, Varieties, and Treatment; including the Use of the Laryngoscope as an Aid to Diagnosis. By M. PROSSER JAMES, M. D., Senior Physician to the City Dispensary, etc. etc. Second edition. Illustrated. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1866.

The True and False Sciences. A Letter on Homœopathy. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1866.

Defects of Sight and Hearing: their Nature, Causes, Prevention, and General Management. By T. WHARTON JONES, F. R. S., F. R. C. S., Professor of Ophthalmic Medicine and Surgery in University College, London, etc. etc. Second edition of "Defects of Sight." London: John Churchill & Sons, 1866.

Notes on Health in Calcutta and British Emigrant Ships, including Ventilation, Diet, and Disease. By W. H. PEARSE, M. D. Edin., Government Emigration Service. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1866.

Brief Remarks on Cholera: being the Result of Observations during the two last Outbreaks of Cholera in England; and an Attempt to advance a Theory of that Disease which shall lead to a more consistent Method of Treatment, to which is added a short Table of Practical Rules for General Use during an Epidemic. By ROBERT J. SPITTA, M. D. Lond. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1866.

The Elements of Prognosis in Consumption, with Indications for the Prevention and Treatment. By JAMES EDWARD POLLOCK, M. D., F. R. C. P.; Physician to the Hospital for Consumption and Diseases of the Chest, Brompton, etc. etc. etc. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1865.

Clinical Memoirs on the Diseases of Women. By M. GUSTAVE BERNUTZ, Physician to La Pitié, and M. ERNEST GOUPIL, late Physician to the Bureau Central. In two volumes. Vol. I. Translated and edited by ALFRED MEADOWS, M. D. Lond., Physician to the Hospital for Women, Soho Square, and to the General Lying-in Hospital, etc. etc. etc. The New Sydenham Society, London, 1866.

Atlas of Surgical and Topographical Anatomy. By B. J. BÉRAUD, Surgeon and Professor to the Maternity Hospital of Paris, Vice-President of the Biological Society, etc. etc. etc. Illustrated by one hundred plates drawn from nature by M. Bion. Translated by ROBERT THOMAS HULME, M. R. C. S. Eng. Parts 1, 2, 3. London: H. Baillière, 1866.

Cholera: its Nature, Cause, and Treatment, Simply, Scientifically, and Practically Explained. By C. SEARLE, M. D., M. R. C. S. E. London, 1866.

On Safe Anæsthesia in Labour. By ROBERT ELLIS, Surgeon-Accoucheur to the Chelsea, Brompton, and Belgrave Dispensary, etc. etc. etc. With a description of the fluids and apparatus manufactured by Savory & Moore, 143 New Bond Street. London, 1866. (From the Author.)

Untersuchungen über das Entstehen der Hippursäure im thierischen Organismus. Von Dr. G. MEISSNER, Professor in Göttingen, und C. U. SHEPARD, aus New-Haven. Mit einer lithographirten Tafel. Hannover, 1866. (From Dr. C. U. Shepard.)

Manual of Materia Medica and Therapeutics: being an Abridgment of the late Dr. Pereira's Elements of Materia Medica, arranged in conformity with the British Pharmacopœia, and adapted to the Use of Medical Practitioners, Chemists and Druggists, Medical and Pharmaceutical Students, &c. By JOHN FREDERIC FARRE, M. D. Cantab., F. L. S., F. R. C. P. London, Honorary Member of the Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain, etc. etc. etc. Assisted by ROBERT BENTLEY, M. R. C. S., F. L. S., Honorary Fellow of King's College, London, Professor of Botany in King's College, etc. etc. etc.; and by ROBERT WARRINGTON, F. R. S., F. C. S., Chemical Operator to the Society of Apothecaries, and Vice-President of the Chemical Society. Edited, with numerous References to the U. S. Pharmacopœia, and many other Additions, by HORATIO C. WOOD, Jr., M. D., Professor of Botany, University of Pennsylvania, Auxiliary Faculty of Medicine; Member of the American Philosophical Society, etc. etc. etc. With two hundred and thirty-six wood engravings. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea, 1866.

A Practical Treatise on Fractures and Dislocations. By FRANK HASTINGS HAMILTON, A. M., M. D., Professor of the Principles of Surgery, Military Surgery and Hygiene, and of Fractures and Dislocations in Bellevue Hospital Medical College, etc. etc. etc. Third edition, revised and improved. Illustrated with two hundred and ninety-four wood-cuts. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea, 1866.

A Practical Treatise on the Physical Exploration of the Chest, and the Diagnosis of Diseases affecting the Respiratory Organs. By AUSTIN FLINT, M. D., Professor of the Principles and Practice of Medicine in the Bellevue Hospital Medical College and in the Long Island College Hospital, etc. etc. etc. Second edition, revised. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea, 1866.

Medical Electricity: embracing Electro-Physiology and Electricity as a Therapeutic, with Special Reference to Practical Medicine; showing the most approved Apparatus, Methods, and Rules for the Medical Uses of Electricity in the Treatment of Nervous Diseases. By ALFRED C. GARRATT, M. D., Fellow of the Massachusetts Medical Society, &c. &c. Third edition, revised and illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1866.

Medical Diagnosis, with Special Reference to Practical Medicine. A Guide to the Knowledge and Discrimination of Diseases. By J. M. DaCOSTA, M. D., Lecturer on Clinical Medicine and Physician to the Pennsylvania Hospital, F. C. P. Philadelphia, etc. etc. etc. Illustrated with engravings on wood. Second edition, revised. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1866.

A Guide to the Practical Study of Diseases of the Eye; with an Outline of their Medical and Operative Treatment. By JAMES DIXON, F. R. C. S., Surgeon to the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital, Moorfields. From the third London edition. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blakiston, 1866.

The Physician's Visiting List for 1867. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blakiston.

Orthopedics: a Systematic Treatise upon the Prevention and Correction of Deformities. By DAVID PRINCE, M. D. Philadelphia: Lindsay & Blakiston, 1866.

On Spermatorrhœa: its Causes, Symptomatology, Pathology, Prognosis, Diagnosis, and Treatment. By ROBERTS BARTHOLOW, A. M., M. D., Professor of Physics and Medical Chemistry in the Medical College of Ohio, etc. etc. etc. New York: William Wood & Co., 1866.

Chemical Tables. By STEPHEN B. SHARPLESS, S. B. Cambridge: Sever & Francis, 1866.

A Treatise on the Origin, Nature, Prevention, and Treatment of Asiatic Cholera. By JOHN C. PETERS, M. D. New York: D. Van Nostrand, 1866.

Clinical Lectures by Professor A. Von Graefe, on Amblyopia and Amaurosis, and the Extraction of Cataract. Translated from the German by HASKET DERBY, M. D., Surgeon to the Massachusetts Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary, etc. etc. Boston: David Clapp & Son, 1866.

Disinfectants. By E. R. SQUIBB, M. D., of Brooklyn, N. Y. New York, 1866.

On Excision of the Superior Maxilla. Report of a Case, with Remarks on certain Tumours of this Bone. By WM. R. WHITEHEAD, M. D. (Univ. of Paris), formerly Professor of Clinical Medicine in the New York Medical College, etc. New York, 1866. (From the Author.)

Epidemic Cholera: its Pathology and Treatment. By A. B. PALMER, M. D., Professor of Pathology, the Practice of Medicine, and of Hygiene in the University of Michigan, etc. etc. etc. Detroit, 1866.

Cystic Tumours of the Jaw. By J. MASON WARREN, M. D. Boston, 1866. (From the Author.)

Whiskey and Tobacco: their Effects upon Soldiers and others. By PAUL F. EVE, M. D., Professor of Surgery in the University of Nashville. Nashville, Tenn., 1866. (From the Author.)

Observations upon the Cranial Forms of the American Aborigines, based upon Specimens contained in the Collection of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia. By J. AITKEN MEIGS, M. D., Member of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, Fellow of the College of Physicians, etc. Philadelphia, 1866.

The Hunterian Ligation of Arteries, to Relieve and to Prevent Destructive Inflammation. By HENRY F. CAMPBELL, M. D., Professor of Anatomy in the New Orleans School of Medicine, etc. etc. etc. Augusta, Ga., 1866. (From the Author.)

Transactions of the Indiana State Medical Society, at its Sixteenth Annual Session, held at Indianapolis, May 15, 16, and 17, 1866. Indianapolis, 1866.

Transactions of the Vermont Medical Society, for the year 1865. Burlington, 1866. (From the Society.)

Proceedings of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, April and May, 1866. Philadelphia, 1866.

Seventeenth Annual Report of the Indiana Hospital for the Insane, for the year ending October 31, 1865. To the Governor. Indianapolis, 1866.

Second Annual Report of the New York State Inebriate Asylum. Transmitted to the Legislature, February 13, 1864. Albany, 1863.

Eighth Annual Report of the Chicago Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary, for the year ending May 1, 1866. Chicago, 1866.

An Address by the Citizens' Association of Pennsylvania to the People, with Act of Incorporation. Philadelphia, 1866.

Report of the Board of Health of the City and Port of Philadelphia to the Mayor, for 1865. Philadelphia, 1866.

The following Journals have been received in exchange:—

Revue de Thérapeutique Médico-Chirurgicale. Par A. MARTIN-LAUZER, M. D. Nos. 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 1866.

Journal de la Physiologie de l'Homme et des Animaux. Publié sous la direction du Docteur BROWN-SÉQUARD. Numero 24, Octobre 1863. Publié en Décembre, 1865.)

Annales Médico-Psychologiques. Par MM. les Docteurs BAILLARGER et CÉRISE. January, March, 1866.

The Half-Yearly Abstract of the Medical Sciences. Vol. XLIII. January—June, 1866. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1866.

The British and Foreign Medico-Chirurgical Review. July, 1866.

The Retrospect of Medicine. Edited by W. BRAITHWAITE, M. D., and JAMES BRAITHWAITE, M. D. Vol. LIII. January—June, 1866.

The Medical Times and Gazette. June, July, August, 1866.

The British Medical Journal. Nos. 274, 281, 282, 283, 284, 285, 286, 287, 288, 289, 290, 291, 292, 293, 1866.

Edinburgh Medical Journal. June, July, August, 1866.

The Glasgow Medical Journal. May, June, July, 1866.

The Medical Mirror. June, July, August, 1866.

The Medical Press and Circular. June, July, August, 1866.

The Dublin Quarterly Journal of Medical Science. August, 1866.

The Madras Quarterly Journal of Medical Science. January, April, 1866.

Canada Medical Journal. Edited by G. E. FENWICK, M. D., and F. W. CAMPBELL, M. D., L. R. C. P. L. June, July, 1866.

The Boston Medical and Surgical Journal. Edited by SAMUEL L. ABBOT, M. D., and JAS. C. WHITE, M. D. July, August, September, 1866.

The American Journal of Insanity. Edited by the Medical Officers of the New York State Lunatic Asylum. July, 1866.

The Cincinnati Lancet and Observer. Edited by EDWARD B. STEVENS, M. D., and JOHN A. MURPHY, M. D. July, August, September, 1866.

The St. Louis Medical and Surgical Journal. Edited by M. L. LINTON, M. D., and FRANK W. WHITE, M. D. July, August, 1866.

The New York Medical Journal. July, August, September, 1866.

The Medical Record. July, August, September, 1866.

The Chicago Medical Examiner. Edited by N. S. DAVIS, M. D. July, August, September, 1866.

The Buffalo Medical and Surgical Journal. Edited by JULIUS F. MINER, M. D. July, August, 1866.

The Chicago Medical Journal. July, August, September, 1866.

The Medical and Surgical Reporter. Edited by S. W. BUTLER, M. D. July, August, September, 1866.

The Cincinnati Journal of Medicine. Edited by GEO. C. BLACKMAN, M. D., THEOPHILUS PARVIN, M. D., and ROBERTS BARTHOLOW, M. D. July, August, September, 1866.

The Richmond Medical Journal. Edited by E. S. GAILLARD, M. D., and W. S. MCCHESENEY, M. D. July, August, September, 1866.

The Savannah Journal of Medicine. Edited by JURIAH HARRIS, M. D., J. B. READ, M. D., and J. G. THOMAS, M. D. June, July, 1866.

The Medical Reporter. Edited by J. S. B. ALLEYNE, M. D., and O. F. POTTER, M. D. July, August, September, 1866.

Atlanta Medical and Surgical Journal. Edited by J. G. WESTMORLAND, M. D., and W. F. WESTMORLAND, M. D. July, August, September, 1866.

The Medical and Surgical Monthly, Memphis, Tennessee. Edited by FRANK A. RAMSEY, M. D., D. D. SAUNDERS, M. D., E. MILES WILLETT, M. D., and W. M. H. WHITE, M. D. June, July, 1866.

Southern Journal of Medical Sciences. Edited by D. WARREN BRICKELL, M. D., C. BEARD, M. D., and W. S. MITCHELL, M. D. August, 1866.

The Pacific Medical and Surgical Journal and Press. Edited by HENRY GIBBONS, M. D. June, August, 1866.

The Nashville Journal of Medicine and Surgery. Edited by Profs. W. K. BOWLING and PAUL F. EVE. July, August, September, 1866.

The Galveston Medical Journal. Edited by GREENSVILLE DOWELL, M. D. April, July, August, 1866. (Nos. for May and June have not been received.)

Southern Medical and Surgical Journal. Edited by JOSEPH JONES, M. D. July, 1866.

The Detroit Review of Medicine and Pharmacy. Edited by GEO. P. ANDREWS, M. D., S. P. DUFFIELD, Ph. D., and E. W. JENKS, M. D. July, August, September, 1866.

The New Orleans Medical and Surgical Journal. Edited by WARREN STONE, M. D., JAMES JONES, M. D., STANFORD E. CHAILLE, M. D., and WILLIAM C. NICHOLS, M. D. July, 1866.

The American Journal of Pharmacy. Published by Authority of the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy. Edited by WILLIAM PROCTER, JR. July, September, 1866.

The Druggists' Circular and Chemical Gazette. July, August, Sept., 1866.

The Journal of Materia Medica. Conducted by JOSEPH BATES, M. D., and H. A. TILDEN. July, August, September, 1866.

The Dental Cosmos. Edited by J. H. MCQUILLEN, D. D. S., and GEORGE J. ZIEGLER, M. D. August, September, 1866.

CONTENTS

OF THE

AMERICAN JOURNAL

OF THE

MEDICAL SCIENCES.

NO. CIV. NEW SERIES.

OCTOBER 1866.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

MEMOIRS AND CASES.

ART.	PAGE
I. Observations on Spotted Fever. By Wm. O. Baldwin, M.D., of Montgomery, Ala. Read before the Medical and Surgical Society of Montgomery, April 2d, 1866. (Published by order of the Society.)	321
II. Entero-colitis, or Chronic Diarrhoea. With some Practical Observations upon its Nature and Treatment. By W. Kempster, M.D., of Syracuse, N. Y.	337
III. On Typhlitis and Peri-Typhlitis; or, Diseases of the Cæcum and Appendix resulting in Abscess in the Right Iliac Fossa. By Roberts Bartholow, M.D., Lecturer on Clinical Medicine and Physician to St. John's Hospital, Cincinnati, etc. etc.	351
IV. On the Inhalation of Atomized Medicated Liquids and its Value in the Treatment of Diseases of the Respiratory Organs. By John Hart, M.D., Boston, Mass.	362
V. Hypodermic Injections in the Treatment of Disease. By R. B. Maury, M.D., Port Gibson, Miss.	371
VI. Statistics of Height and Weight. By S. Henry Dickson, M.D., Prof. Practice of Medicine in Jefferson Medical College, Philad.	373
VII. An Operation for the Correction of Inversion of the Ciliary Margin of the Eyelids, connected with Shortening of the Palpebral Fissure: by the Implantation of Integument behind the Outer Portion of the Upper Lid. By David Prince, M.D., of Jacksonville, Ill. (With two wood-cuts.)	381
VIII. Spotted Fever as observed in Breckenridge County, Kentucky. By J. W. Moorman, M.D., of Hardinsburg, Ky.	386
IX. On the Changes of Type of Diseases. By R. E. Haughton, M.D., of Richmond, Ind.	389
X. Memoranda of Cases. By Richard McSherry, M.D., Prof. Principles and Practice of Medicine, University of Maryland.	397
XI. Rupture of the Uterus—Abdominal Section—Subsequent Pregnancy and Safe Delivery. By Edward Whinery, M.D., of Fort Madison, Iowa.	401
XII. Case of United Twins. By Philip Harvey, M.D., of Burlington, Iowa. (With two wood-cuts.)	403
XIII. Arrest of Hemorrhage by Styptic and Compression, with a Case involving the Posterior Tibial Artery, incised transversely. By J. W. Sherfy, M.D., Act. Passed Asst. Surg. U. S. N.	405
XIV. Shoulder Presentation. Version in the Position on the Knees and Breast. By Jno. G. Bigham, M.D., of Millersburg, Ohio.	408

TRANSACTIONS OF SOCIETIES.

ART.	PAGE
XV. Summary of the Transactions of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia.	409
Case of Strangulated Hernia. By Dr. John Ashhurst, Jr.	409
Strangulated Hernia. By Dr. Packard.	412
Abscess of Brain. By Dr. Levick.	413
Etherization. By Dr. Packard.	415
Fatal Peritonitis from Perforation of the Appendix Vermiformis. By Dr. A. D. Hall.	415
XVI. Summary of the Proceedings of the Pathological Society of Philadelphia.	417
Cancer of the Liver. By Dr. H. Williams.	417
Phthisis Pulmonalis. Death from Tubercular Meningitis in an Adult. By Dr. George Pepper.	418
Embolism of Renal, Splenic, and Cerebral Arteries. By Dr. Hutchinson.	420
Hemorrhagic Erosion of Gastric Mucous Membrane. By Dr. Wm. Pepper.	422
Fracture of Ribs, Arm, Leg, and Pelvis from a Fall. By Dr. Wm. Pepper.	422
Acute Malignant Disease, affecting the Stomach, Mesenteric Glands, Lungs, Liver, and Bronchial Glands. By Dr. Geo. Pepper.	425
Punctured Wound of Orbit—traversing the Orbit and entering brain. Death from hemorrhage into skull. By Dr. Wm. Pepper.	427
Penetrating Wound of Abdomen, traversing both walls of Stomach and left Kidney. Death from hemorrhage in $4\frac{1}{2}$ hours. By Dr. Wm. Pepper.	429
Gall-Stone of Cholesterine extracted from the Rectum During Life. By Dr. S. W. Mitchell.	430
Gunshot Wound of Shoulder; Fracture of Scapula; Infiltration of Muscles of Back; Sudden Death. By Dr. Wm. Pepper.	433

REVIEWS.

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XXI. Reports of American Hospitals for the Insane.	
1. Of the State Asylum, at Trenton, N. J., for the year 1865.	
2. Of the Mount Hope Institution, for the year 1865.	
3. Of the Central Ohio Asylum, for the fiscal year 1864-65.	

ART.

PAGE

4. Of the Southern Ohio Asylum, for the fiscal year 1864-65.
 5. Of the Longview Asylum, for the fiscal year 1864-65.
 6. Of the Indiana Hospital, for the fiscal year 1864-65.
 7. Of the Iowa Hospital, for the fiscal year 1864-65.
 8. Of the New Hampshire Asylum, for the fiscal year 1864-65.
 9. Of the New York City Asylum, for the year 1865.
 10. Of the Asylum for Insane Convicts, Auburn N. Y., for the fiscal year 1864-65. 498
- XXII. Recent Works on Cholera.
1. Cholera in its Home. With a Sketch of the Pathology and Treatment of the Disease. By John Macpherson, M. D., late Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals H. M. Bengal Army, and formerly of the European General Hospital, Calcutta, &c. &c. Small 8vo. pp. 155. London: John Churchill and Sons, 1866.
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ART.	PAGE
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QUARTERLY SUMMARY

OF THE

IMPROVEMENTS AND DISCOVERIES IN THE MEDICAL SCIENCES.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY.

	PAGE		PAGE
1. Existence in the Tissues of Animals of a Substance closely resembling Quinia. By Dr. Henry Benck Jones.	521	Nerves in the Muscles. By Dr. Beale.	523
2. On the Heat of Fluidity, or Latent Heat of Animal Bodies. By Dr. B. W. Richardson.	522	5. Vessels and Nerves of the Ligaments and Fibro-Cartilages. By M. Sappey.	523
3. A System of Perivascular Canals in the Central Nervous Organs. By Herr Hiss.	522	6. Myograph. By M. Marey.	524
4. Termination of the Motor		7. Influence of Water in the Production of Milk. By M. Damoiseau.	524
		8. Structure of the Crystalline Lens. By Herr Von Decker.	524

MATERIA MEDICA AND PHARMACY.

	PAGE		PAGE
9. Action of the Bromide of Potassium upon the Nervous System. By Dr. J. Crichton Browne.	524	cacuanha in the Treatment of Dysentery. By Mr. J. J. Durant.	526
10. Physiological action of Narceine. By M. Linné.	525	13. Wheat Phosphates. By Dr. Tilbury Fox.	526
11. Therapeutic Uses of Oxygen. By M. Demarquay.	525	14. Port Royal Senna.	527
12. Mudar, a Substitute for Ipe-		15. Use and Abuse of Poultices. By Dr. Richardson.	527

MEDICAL PATHOLOGY AND THERAPEUTICS, AND PRACTICAL MEDICINE.

16. Microscopical Researches on Cholera. By Dr. L. S. Beale.	528	Diseased Kidneys. By M. Corlieu.	533
17. Internal Temperature in Cholera. By Dr. Weber.	532	21. Addison's Disease. By Dr. Greenhow.	533
18. Aphasia with Right Hemiplegia, Softening in the Island of Reil, and External Frontal Convulsion. By Dr. Sanders.	532	22. Influence of Sex and Age in Determining the Liability to Asthma. By Dr. Hyde Salter.	534
19. Atrophy and Degeneration of the Muscles of the Upper and Lower Extremities from Disease of the Spinal Cord. By Mr. Geo. L. Cooper.	532	23. Treatment of Delirium Tremens. By Prof. Geo. Johnson.	536
20. Mode of Distinguishing between Nervous Idiopathic Albuminuria and the Albuminuria of		24. Treatment of Pneumonia. By Dr. Alex. Smith.	538
		25. Treatment of Diphtheria. By Dr. W. Lindsay Richardson.	540
		26. The Milk Cure. By Dr. Philip Karell.	540
		27. Citrate of Soda in Diabetes. By M. Guyot-Dannecey.	543

SURGICAL PATHOLOGY AND THERAPEUTICS, AND OPERATIVE SURGERY.

28. Osteo-Myelitis. By Dr. J. Fayrer.	544	32. Treatment of Wounds by Ventilation. By M. Béranger-Féraud.	550
29. Cancer: a new Method of Treatment, by which Malignant Tumours may be removed with Little Pain or Constitutional Disturbance. By W. H. Broadbent, M.D.	547	33. Successful Amputation at the Hip-joint on account of Malignant Tumour of the Femur. By Mr. James Spence.	550
30. Umbilical Hernia. By M. Demarquay.	548	34. Syme's Amputation of the Foot. By Mr. Henry Hancock.	552
31. Chronic Urethritis. By M. Allaire.	549	35. Mercurial Collodion in the Removal of Syphilitic Patches of Discoloration. By M. Leclerc.	552

OPHTHALMOLOGY.

36. Employment of Anæsthetic Agents during Operations on the Eye. By M. Wecker.	553	into the Vitreous Humour. By Mr. R. H. McKeand.	559
37. Von Graefe's Treatment of Cataract. By A. Samelson, M.D.	554	40. Nyctopia. By Dr. F. E. Junker.	559
38. Detachment of the Retina; its Causes and Treatment. By Mr. Haynes Walton.	558	41. Removal of the Lachrymal Gland for the Radical Cure of Inveterate Cases of Lachrymal Abscess. By Dr. J. Z. Laurence.	559
39. Spontaneous Effusion of Blood			

MIDWIFERY.

	PAGE		PAGE
42. Dilatation of the Perineum. By Dr. James More.	560	47. Uterine Hæmatocele. By Dr. J. Matthews Duncan.	565
43. Laceration of the Uterus. By Dr. Thomas Radford.	561	48. Case of Congenital Jaundice— Umbilical Hemorrhage. By Dr. James Cappie.	565
44. Cases of Rupture of the Uterus. By Drs. Gordon and Keiller.	562	49. Early Menstruation. By Prof. Hubbard.	565
45. Evulsion of the Umbilical Cord occurring at Birth. By Dr. G. de Gorrequer Griffith.	564	50. On Extreme Surgical Tenden- cies of Pathologists; and on the Division of the Cervix Uteri. By Dr. Tilt.	566
46. Chlorate of Potash in the Treatment of Ovarian Disease. By Mr. W. Craig.	564		

HYGIENE.

51. Organic Impurities in Water. By Dr. Wm. Proctor.	568
--	-----

MEDICAL JURISPRUDENCE AND TOXICOLOGY.

52. Poisoning by Tobacco-Juice. By M. A. Marchant.	571	53. Death from Swallowing Four Ounces of Chloroform. By E. C. Board, Esq.	571
---	-----	---	-----

AMERICAN INTELLIGENCE.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

Sunstroke Treated by the External use of Ice. By Dr. James J. Levick.	573	communicated by H. C. Wood, Jr., M.D. By Dr. G. Lincoicum	575
Contagiousness of Typhoid Fever. By A. Rothrock, M.D.	574	Fracture of the Internal Condyle of the Femur. By Edward M. Curtis, M.D.	577
Effects of the Bite of the Scolo- pendra heros (Centipede). Com-		Wound of the Abdomen and In- testine, &c.; Recovery. By H. Mathis, M.D.	577

DOMESTIC SUMMARY.

Removal of the Uterus and both Ovaries by Abdominal Section— Death from Shock in three hours. By Prof. Charles A. Pope.	579	Tumour of the Left Optic Thala- mus. By Morrill Wyman.	582
Successful Ligation of External Iliac Artery with Silver Wire. By Dr. C. H. Martin.	580	Comparison of the Right and Left Clavicle. By Dr. J. Wyman.	583
Gunshot Fracture of the Skull. By Prof. T. G. Richardson.	581	Urachus Pervious after Birth. By Dr. G. J. Townsend.	583
Amblyopia produced by Osmic Acid. By Dr. Henry D. Noyes.	582	Formula for Collodion. By Dr. J. P. Maynard.	584
		Hyposulphite of Soda in Malarial Fevers. By W. H. Baxter.	584
		Treatment of Burns. By Dr. E. Mendenhall.	584

THE
AMERICAN JOURNAL
OF THE MEDICAL SCIENCES
FOR OCTOBER 1866.

ART. I.—*Observations on Spotted Fever.* By WM. O. BALDWIN, M. D., of Montgomery, Ala. Read before the Medical and Surgical Society of Montgomery, April 2d, 1866. (Published by order of the Society.)

I HAVE recently met with a few cases of disease of a very malignant and fatal character, which I am persuaded has never prevailed in this section until within the past few weeks. Indeed, judging from the scanty records which we are enabled to find on the subject by medical historians, I am much inclined to the belief that the disease has not prevailed very often in any country. Most of our systematic works on the practice of medicine make no allusion to it, whilst others treat of it in a very unsatisfactory manner—generally confounding it with other and very different diseases. The following notes of three cases of disease occurring in this place, and proving fatal, will, probably, give a better idea of its nature than I could do by simply reading you a synopsis of them.

CASE I. *March 4.* Was sent for in the morning by Mr. D—, to see his little daughter, "Mary Lou," aged about eight years. When I entered the room the family informed me that they had sent for me to see a case of smallpox, and presented this little girl, who was sitting in a chair before the fire looking very cheerful and well. On examination I discovered the neck and upper portions of the breast to be thickly covered with dark red or purple spots, varying in size from a duck-shot to a common sized pea. This eruption was not elevated above the skin, and did not recede under pressure. I did not examine the skin under the clothes. I thought the eruption was a singular one under the circumstances, but as the child appeared well otherwise and did not complain, I made no farther examination than to feel her pulse and examine her tongue, which appearing natural, I simply remarked to the parents that they need have no fears about small-

pox, and made no prescription for her. I was preparing to leave the house, when I was told by the family that they wished me to see an old negro woman in the kitchen, who had been complaining for several days. This I found to be a case with the primary fever of smallpox. On the following morning the eruption made its appearance and she was removed to the hospital.

5th, 6 o'clock P. M. Was sent for to see little "Mary Lon," who had just had a chill. Had been much troubled and grieved at the removal of the old woman from the house this morning. She had been her nurse, and she was much attached to her, and the family attribute her present illness to nervousness arising from the distress of mind under which she has been labouring through the day. Pulse, 150 and very soft; surface rather cool; tongue coated white; bowels constipated; tonsils slightly enlarged, of a pale yellow colour and covered with aphthous ulcerations. Seems to be very uncomfortable generally. From the violence of the chill, the appearance of the throat and general distress, I apprehended a severe attack of scarlet fever. Ordered a dose of castor oil, a mixture of hydrochloric acid and chlorate potassæ; and a gargle of sage, alum and honey to-night; also a solution of nitrate of silver, with which I expected to cauterize the throat early next morning.

12 o'clock, night. Sent for. Pulse 170 and soft, skin moderately hot, nausea and occasional vomiting, extremely restless, tossing about in bed and apparently in much pain. She does not appear to be delirious, but gives no satisfactory answers to questions. No motion from bowels. Ordered enema, mustard plasters, and diaphoretic mixture.

6th, 8 o'clock A. M. Passed a very restless night, tossing about in bed; breathing short and hurried; pulse very feeble and intermittent; sordes on teeth; still seems intelligent, but gives no satisfactory answers to questions; countenance anxious; face pale and sunken; skin moist and cooler; surface generally cadaverous; bowels moved twice during the night. A few hours after this there was a feeble effort at reaction, and pulse became somewhat stronger, which, however, lasted but a short time, when it failed again, and the surface became of a dusky, purplish hue, deeper at the extremities, and she gradually sank from this time and died at two o'clock P. M.—just twenty hours from the chill. Dr. Dillard saw this case with me and said he thought he had recently seen some cases like it, which were attended with a like result, and which he considered cases of suppressed smallpox. Stimulants were used during the latter stages, but without effect.

CASE II. *March 13*, 6 o'clock P. M. Was called to see Miss F. T—, a young lady, aunt to the little girl "Mary Lou"—living in the same house, and who was her constant nurse during her last illness. Found her in a heavy chill, with severe rigors or shivering fits. She was sitting in a chair before the fire. Countenance very pale. Has sore throat, which she has complained of for several days. Has had something of a diarrhœa for some days previous to yesterday; bowels now constipated; tongue covered with a dirty white fur, moist. Pulse much accelerated and feeble. Complains of pains in her extremities and a general uneasy and distressed feeling; the rigors and shivering fits are exceedingly severe. I had been prescribing for her, for dyspepsia occasionally, for a few months past, and being informed that in addition to her usual meal for dinner, which she took about two o'clock, she had also eaten rather freely of a potato pudding sent in a few hours after by one of the neighbours, I was inclined to

think these rigors were the nervous chills which we sometimes meet with in dyspeptics, from indigestion, and that they would not be followed by any great amount of febrile reaction. Ordered warm water to be drunk freely until vomiting is produced; after which, directed her to take half a teaspoonful of bi-carb. soda in half a tumbler of water, with two teaspoonfuls of paregoric. Hot applications and hot ginger tea. 9 o'clock P. M., was sent for in consequence of agonizing pains in arms, wrists and legs. She held her arms in such a position and complained of them in such a way as to lead me to suspect that she might have an acute neuralgic rheumatism, and I so expressed myself to the family. The slightest touch, even the laying of the hand gently upon the wrist to feel the pulse caused her to scream out with pain. Her agony seemed most intense. At times she complained of a general numbness—sometimes she would say she was paralyzed. Occasionally she would cry out from pain in this or that toe or finger. Sometimes she would complain of pain in the head, but the place to which she most commonly referred the severest pain was in the wrist of the left arm, though she would frequently say she was “in pain all over.” Her screams from pain and cries for help were so constant and unremitting that it was somewhat difficult to question her, and caused both her attendants and myself to remonstrate with her. Breathing remarkably hurried and distressed; pulse 150 and fuller; skin hot; face flushed, eyes red and watery. Has vomited contents of stomach and used other remedies ordered. Was told that she seemed much exhilarated after reaction came on—making jocose and pleasant remarks to servants and other attendants. Chill lasted between two and three hours. Ordered, R.—Calomel gr. vj, pulv. opii gr. $\frac{1}{2}$, M.—to be made into pill and taken at once, and pulv. Dov. camph. gr. viij; the Dovers powder to be repeated in two hours if pain and distress continue. Also a diaphoretic mixture of sp. nit. dulc. and chlorat. potass., with quinia, in the morning—six grs. at six o'clock, to be repeated every three hours until eighteen grs. have been taken.

14th, 7 o'clock A. M. Has spent a wretched night; slept but a few minutes at a time, and when awake screaming with pain in extremities and abdomen, those in abdomen resembling a severe attack of colic. Arms extremely tender and painful to the touch; wrists slightly swollen and somewhat stiff. Arms held mostly in one position, the slightest movement or touch causing increased pain. Complains of great numbness and paralysis in extremities, and a sense of general prostration; breathing much distressed, short, and very rapid. One of the attendants told me she was a little delirious through the night at times, but mind is clear now; eyes present a reddened, languid, heavy, and dull appearance. Has suffered much with nausea through the night, and vomited several times. Her general distress now seems to be extreme. Pulse 112, very feeble, soft, and intermittent; skin cooler, but still above the normal temperature. Took the six grains quinia at 6 o'clock, which was vomited and immediately repeated and retained. No motion from bowels. Ordered one teaspoonful of Henry's magnesia. 10 o'clock A. M., sent for. As soon as I entered her room the patient, looking at her hands and wrists, informed me she had smallpox. On examination I found the back of the hands, wrists, forearms, feet, and legs, covered with spots of a dark red colour, generally about the size of an English pea, some smaller, some larger; no elevation of skin and spots remaining under pressure. In form they are generally circular, though in a few instances, particularly those nearest the elbow, they are irregularly shaped, presenting an ecchymosed or bruised appear-

ance. Ordered warm heating applications and no other alteration in prescription. Quinia continued. 11 o'clock A. M. Invited my partner Dr. J. M. Williams to see her with me in consultation. Pulse 120, pains and general distress unabated, and no other material alteration. Ordered morphia gr. $\frac{1}{4}$ every second hour, and brandy as freely as it can be taken, hot applications; and also liquor ammon. acetatis. 3 o'clock P. M. Countenance anxious and expressive of deepest suffering. Pulse has been almost extinct at the wrist since last report, with cold and livid extremities. Now stronger and fuller with a heavy perspiration and warm surface. Says she feels the effect of the quinia in head—18 grs. of which have been taken. Hands though warmer have a mottled appearance. Skin over knuckles and other joints of upper extremities red and mottled. Nausea not so great. Pains, numbness, hurried breathing and general distress continue unabated. Continue morphia and brandy. 9 o'clock P. M. Pulse again very feeble, rejects brandy, ordered champagne instead; continue morphia and give lime-water; apply blister 6 by 8 to stomach. Dr. Williams will remain with her through the night.

15th, 7 o'clock A. M. Had passed a miserable night; was constantly screaming from pain with scarcely any intermission. Her sufferings, as described by Dr. Williams, were distressing to witness. He gave her chloroform with but little or very temporary relief. Pulse almost imperceptible; refuses almost everything offered by the mouth. Petechiæ or purple spots of a darker color. Pupils very small, contracted almost to a point; no motion from bowels; nausea and vomiting, with troublesome eructations of gas. The arms have a hard inelastic and stiffened feel; mental faculties tolerably clear. Ordered blister to spine three by twelve inches. Continue wine and stimulants. 9 o'clock. Invited my friend, Dr. J. S. Weatherly, to see her. Condition pretty much as at last report; gave her one-third grain of morphia with hypodermic syringe, and ordered aromat. sulph. acid. Continue stimulants as before. 11 o'clock A. M. Invited Dr. Dillard to see her with me. Pulse scarcely perceptible; countenance anxious, breathing short and rapid; extreme prostration; numbness and paralysis continue; sordes on teeth; mind clear. Hypodermic dose of morphia had no effect in controlling pain, which continues distressing notwithstanding the vital powers are failing so rapidly.

I now despaired of being able to do anything for her, and being much pressed with professional engagements, requested Dr. Dillard to remain with her, and did not see much more of her until she had had two convulsions, which occurred between three and four o'clock P. M. I saw her at four o'clock, found her without any pulse, with the surface generally, but more especially the extremities, of a dark purplish hue, and breathing rather stertorous but still hurried. I supposed her to be moribund, and left her without a perscription, though I was told by the attendants that she had another violent convulsion afterwards and did not die until six o'clock P. M. Dr. Williams saw her in the second convulsion, and described it as being one of the most violent he had ever witnessed. The family tell me that the first convulsion was even more violent than the one witnessed by Dr. Williams. Death occurred exactly forty-eight hours after the invasion of the disease. Through feelings of delicacy I did not request a post-mortem examination. Examined the eruption on her arms eighteen hours after death—spots very distinct, of rather a brighter purple than when noticed a few hours before death. Was informed by the ladies who dressed her for the grave that these spots were larger and much more numerous on

thighs, hips, back of neck, and around her waist. Considerable swelling of abdomen came on before death, and has much increased since.

CASE III. Reported to me by my friend Dr. A. M. Oliver, who was on the night of the 19th requested to visit Mrs. McD —, aged about twenty-four years. In consequence of the illness of his own wife he was unable to visit her, but prescribed morphia and brandy. Having his suspicions somewhat excited as to the nature of the disease by the history which was given to him of the case by the husband when he came to request him to visit her, and on next morning, learning that she had died at two o'clock on the previous night, he was induced to visit the house and learn more particularly the circumstances and history of the case. These he obtained from the husband and female attendant, which were substantially as follows:—

She had sore throat on day before attack (18th), with some bleeding from nose. About two o'clock P. M. on 19th she was attacked with very severe pain in left wrist, which was followed in about fifteen or twenty minutes by a chill attended with severe shivering, chattering of the teeth, &c., which lasted two or three hours. Accompanying the chill there was violent pain in the wrist, extremities generally, as well as in the head and back, which continued distressing throughout the attack. Surface rather cool, and pulse frequent and weak throughout. Had a mild cholera morbus, producing five or six operations from bowels, with nausea and occasional vomiting, and troublesome eructations of gas. Great prostration, with numbness, restlessness, and constant tossing about in bed. Breathing quick and distressed; stiffness of wrists, hands, arms, and neck; purple spots varying in size from the head of a pin to that of a three-cent piece on neck, face, breast, abdomen, arms, and surface generally were observed about the commencement of the attack by the female who assisted her to undress for bed. She had several fainting fits, in one of which she died about two o'clock A. M. on the 20th—the attack having lasted just twelve hours from the time she felt the pain in her wrist. Dr. O. examined the body himself, and found nothing but the purple spots referred to with a general livid appearance of the surface.

In addition to the above I have, through the kindness of professional friends, seen three other cases of this disease occurring subsequently. In one of them only I assisted in the management of the case. Two of them are entirely convalescent, the other resulted in death. These also were females.

The simple narration of three cases of disease, wearing to us a strange and fearful livery, might of itself be calculated to awaken in our minds some feeling of curiosity and interest. But when it is attempted to be shown that these isolated cases are probably the heralds of a fearfully fatal epidemic, similar to that which more than fifty years ago ravaged other portions of this continent, and whose track of desolation and death was said to be equalled only by that of the plague, then they become a subject for our profoundest consideration, and demand our deepest and severest scrutiny.

It is not an easy matter to detect at first sight a disease which has never

been seen before, if it be one varying much in its mode of attack and general appearance, and more especially if it be one which has prevailed so seldom in the history of the world as to attract but little notice from medical writers. It has now been more than half a century since we have had any published medical account of the prevalence of this disease anywhere on the globe, and our accounts of it previous to that period have been but few, and at long intervals of time.

After the fatal termination of the first of these cases I frankly told the family I did not comprehend the disease—that it was new to me, and I could not give it a name, and indeed if I had been familiar with the history and features of the disease in question, the aggregation of symptoms in this particular case taken by itself, was not sufficiently distinct and satisfactory to justify me in assigning it to a nomenclature so foreign and new to this section. I suggested that it probably was a case of undeveloped scarlet fever which had invaded the system with such power and malignity as to overwhelm the vital powers before sufficient time had been allowed for the full development of its distinctive and characteristic features. And with this explanation I should probably have rested my own mind, had not my curiosity been still further excited by the appearance in the same family of another case presenting a similar identity. I searched all the systematic works on the practice of medicine at my command, besides numerous monographs on eruptive and other malignant fevers, without finding any elucidation to my perplexity. I had a vague recollection of having read a description of a disease resembling it many years ago under the head of “Spotted Fever,” but the few works in which I could find “Spotted Fever” mentioned treated of it as a form of typhus, and a disease of long duration. I also talked with several of my professional friends without obtaining any satisfactory information. I invited, at different times, my friends, Dr. J. M. Williams, Dr. Dillard, and Dr. J. S. Weatherly, to visit and examine the patients with me—none of them had ever met with a similar disease. Dr. Weatherly said he had never seen or read of a malady resembling it, but stated that he had *heard* of a very fatal disease which had prevailed in some portions of the State of Georgia, called “Spotted Fever,” and suggested from the purple spots and other general malignant appearance of this case, as well as from the entire want of analogy between this and any other disease which we are in the habit of meeting here, that this might be of that character.

My mind was deeply interested in the subject, and in searching still farther through my library to gain some clue, or to gather some information about the disease which was so strange and novel to me, I came across a little book entitled *A Treatise on a Malignant Epidemic, commonly called Spotted Fever*, by Dr. Elisha North, of Goshen, Connecticut, published in 1811. On opening this little volume I discovered that the disease with which I had been dealing, and which had so worried and perplexed me, was nothing less than the deadly spotted fever, and was there

described with the most perfect accuracy. In this book is also republished a number of essays on the disease by different authors as it prevailed in New England from 1806 to 1810. This, with the report made to the Massachusetts Medical Society by a committee appointed for that purpose, composed of Drs. Walsh, Jackson, and J. C. Warren, contains all that is known of this disease of any interest or value that I have been able to meet with up to the present time.

The disease first made its appearance on this continent in the town of Medfield, Mass., and afterwards in Connecticut, Vermont, Rhode Island, New York, and other sections from 1806 to 1810. The accounts which we have of it are from physicians, presidents of colleges, clergymen, editors, and other persons, all concurring that it was a most dreadful and fatal malady—coming among them “like a flood of mighty waters, bringing along with it all the horrors of a most dreadful plague.” Most of the physicians who wrote on it about that period, call it “a new and strange disease,” “a singular and fatal malady,” and there is no reference or allusion by most of them to its having occurred in any other country, or at any other era of the world’s history. Some one has suggested that it is the disease treated of by Sydenham in his “*Febris Nova*,” but I have recently read this account, and am satisfied that the author in his treatise under this head had reference to a form of typhus, differing materially from spotted fever, and that he nowhere in his work has described a condition bearing any striking similitude to it. Dr. Arnell, in his account of the spotted fever which prevailed in Orange County, N. Y., in the epidemic spoken of as having occurred in the early portion of the present century (republished in Dr. North’s book), says, in reading the *Medicus Novissimus*, which was published about the beginning of the eighteenth century, he found a fever there described as prevailing about London, partaking of all the most prominent symptoms of spotted fever. The following is an extract which he makes from that work, and which is probably the oldest account on record of a disease bearing a very strong resemblance to it:—

“It is attended with very severe symptoms, as violent pains of the head and stomach, frequent shivering, and a sudden but very great weakness without manifest cause, anxiety and pains in the back and loins; the breath smells strong; there is great thirst, continual waking, spots sometimes appear on the body, the pulse is unequal and very low; urine not so high coloured as in simple fevers. There are sometimes convulsions, delirium, &c. &c. * * * * This is a very dangerous disease, and often kills in a very little time. If the hands tremble much when the pulse is felt the disease doth most commonly end in death, especially if there be a foul tongue, a ghastly countenance, and the eyes sunk in the head. The cure must be undertaken as soon as possible, for this disease admits of no delay.”

Our descriptions of spotted fever, until it made its appearance on this continent about the beginning of the present century, have generally been

so meagre and scant as to afford no very satisfactory information regarding its previous history. It is said to have prevailed in many portions of the world since the beginning of the sixteenth century, but I have been enabled to find no record of a disease similar in all its aspects to the cases recently witnessed by me, except the one described by the physicians of New England as occurring from 1806 to 1810. Certain it is that it is a disease of rare occurrence; for, one possessing such striking and anomalous features could not have failed to have attracted more general notice from medical philosophers and historians than has been accorded to this, if it had been very frequently met with.

In the main there is great uniformity in the descriptions of the disease by those who observed it as it prevailed on this continent in the beginning of the present century. I have read perhaps a dozen accounts of it as it occurred in different localities—all concurring in the material and striking features of the disease, with perhaps one exception—I have in my library a work written by “Dr. E. Hale on Spotted Fever as it appeared in Gardiner, Maine, in the spring of 1814.” I do not think that many of the cases detailed by this author were similar to those described by the physicians of New England in the epidemic which prevailed from 1806 to 1810, or to those recently met with by myself.

Of all the descriptions of the disease which I have read, that which gives to my mind the most comprehensive and faithful picture, is the one by Dr. Elisha North, before referred to; and, for the purpose of showing the analogy between the disease described by him as spotted fever, and the cases which I have detailed in the beginning of this article, I propose to transcribe a portion of one of his chapters.

In regard to the premonitions of the disease our author says: “If there is any one symptom which may be regarded as a premonitory symptom in this disease *in all its varieties, it is SORE THROAT.*” All writers on the disease concur in this.

Of “*the symptoms of the first species of the fever,*” he says:—

“A great, surprising, and sudden loss of strength is a constant and prominent symptom; a cold surface also presents itself, sometimes accompanied with chills, sometimes not. The extremities in the cold stage appear of a purplish or livid colour. Violent pains in the head and many times in the limbs, are among the first symptoms; sometimes one, at other times the other, is first attacked. When the pain commences in the limb it soon mounts to the head. Distress about the præcordia violent and extreme, also universal agony of the whole system, and numbness of the extremities, are often added to the above list of symptoms. The breathing is often laborious and attended with frequent sighing. Syncope sometimes occurs. The pulse in this and all the varieties and stages of this complaint, is soft, weak, and never hard, although sometimes as slow and even slower than in health; it is often intermitting or totally absent, even in cases in which the patient has afterwards recovered. The tongue is generally covered with a white coat; but in some bilious cases it is of a brownish hue, some-

times it has been observed to have a bloodless appearance, which has been considered as almost a certain token of approaching death. * * * * There is loss of appetite, sickness of stomach, and vomiting. The worst form this disease ever assumes, particularly in children, is that of coma or cholera-morbus. It frequently assumes the form of a violent mania at the time or within a few hours of the attack, particularly in sanguine young men. Sometimes delirium is among the first symptoms; sometimes coma; and many times petechiæ. This symptom does not occur so often as the name which the disease has obtained would lead us to expect; these vary in size and in colour, from a bright red to a dark purple."

"Unless the patient recovers he commonly dies within the first twelve, twenty-four, or forty-eight hours. Death is ushered in by the gradual giving up of the powers of life, by syncope, by febrile apoplexy, or by convulsions. In those who do recover the disorder puts on, either before or soon after the expiration of the first forty-eight hours the form of a second variety of this disease; or, to express myself in the words of others, 'runs into a mild typhus of uncertain duration.'"

Of the petechial or purple spots or vibices, he observes that they "commonly appeared on the face, neck, extremities, and frequently over the whole body. They were generally observed in the early stages of the disease. In size they were various, commonly the head of a pin and a six cent bit would mark the two extremes. These spots were evidently formed by extravasated blood: they did not rise above the surface and would not recede upon pressure. In colour they varied from a common to a very dark purple, and the darker the shade the more fatal the prognosis." He also describes a milder form of the disease likewise ushered in by chills, but soon followed by a warm surface. This he calls the "second species of the fever," and says it resembles "a mild typhus or the fever attendant on scarlatina; no petechia, but a red fiery eruption, or what is perhaps more common, no eruption at all; pain in the head and limbs is less severe; less universal agony of the system; loss of appetite, nausea, but seldom vomiting or purging; no coma; no delirium; * * * slight sore throat. * * * This species or variety resembles the scarlatina. * * * The red fiery eruptions may generally be regarded when they do occur as designating the second variety of this disease."

There is still another *species* of this disease which our author speaks of as combining the more unusual symptoms of the fever:—

"These are a dilatation and in some instances a contraction of the pupils of the eyes; redness and suffusion of the eyes; blindness in some, in others double or triple vision; a drawing back of the head with a kind of clonic spasm of the muscles of the neck; aphthæ in the throat; an inflammation like erysipelas upon the limbs; swelling like rheumatism of the joints; paralysis of an arm or a leg, or both; carbuncles and buboes; strangury, and to such a degree as to require the use of the catheter; a violent pain in a finger or toe; hysteric symptoms; pain like colic in the bowels; a slight cough; cedematous and shining appearance of the skin; transitory and evanescent flushes of heat; erratic pains flying from part to part; a deadly feeling of the stomach; a corpse-like rigidity of the limbs, hemorrhages, &c. &c." Such are some of its features as detailed by North.

All authors agree that the cases which terminate fatally are apt to do so within forty-eight hours from the invasion of the disease. This is gener-

ally estimated from the time of the initial chill—the premonitory sore throat not being reckoned in this calculation. Most generally perhaps they terminate within twelve or twenty-four hours—often in a much shorter time, and occasionally in from two to six hours.

The disease seems to have no uniform, settled or definite course to run in cases of recovery. Convalescence may commence in from one to five days or may be prolonged to as many weeks, subject to repeated relapses.

Unlike most other diseases, no one symptom seems to be essential to the diagnosis, except *sore throat*, which, as a *premonitory* symptom, may be considered as unvarying, but yet, often so slight as not to be spoken of by the patient unless he is particularly questioned concerning it. Notwithstanding the non-essentiality of any one symptom of the disease, I have yet never met with a malady whose general physiognomy was more striking, or in which the physician would more readily make up a correct diagnosis after he is once familiar with it. And although when he encounters it for the first time he may not be able to assign to it the name by which it is commonly known, he will yet in most instances readily acknowledge he has never seen any condition for which he would be likely to mistake it. And whilst it is variable in its character and some of the prominent symptoms sometimes wanting, yet the congregation of phenomena is so striking that one or two, or three, of any of the symptoms may be absent in a particular case and yet the disease retain a most marked individuality and be easily recognized by one familiar with it.

In all the places where we have had any account of the existence of spotted fever, it has generally made its advent about the breaking up of the frosts of winter, or in the early spring months. Sometimes sporadic cases have appeared as early as January, but it has not often assumed an epidemic form until about the close of winter. In a few instances sporadic cases of the disease have occurred which were not followed by an epidemic. It is said to make its attack in stormy, rainy, or damp weather. By some it is said to follow in the trains of armies, and in this way to have spread over Europe during the last century, and in Germany was called the “war fever,” or the “war plague,” but I have no doubt the fever here alluded to, as in many other instances, was the *typhus petechialis*. Children and young persons are most liable to its attacks, and females more than males, yet no age or sex is exempt from it.

All agree that it is not contagious—on this point I have not seen any difference of opinion.

Some objection has been made to the name *spotted fever*, which has been given to this disease, but I see no reason to quarrel with those who first described it under this head. When it is possible to do so, of course, it is more intelligible to give that name to a disease which is most suggestive of the morbid changes induced by it, or one which denotes a constant and prominent symptom, but there is no constant and unvarying symptom in

the disease in question, which does not belong to some of those with which it has been confounded; and our knowledge of its pathology is so imperfect, that I doubt if we could improve its nomenclature even at the present day.

I have no doubt that spotted fever has been treated of under many different names, and confounded with many different diseases—such as typhus, typhoid, jail, putrid, camp, hospital, scarlet, and congestive fever; besides rheumatism, cholera-morbus, apoplexy, phrenitis, cerebro-spinal-meningitis, acute hydrocephalus internus, and typhoid pneumonia. To many of which it bears a resemblance in the exaggeration of some of its prominent and varied symptoms, whilst to others no farther analogy than the presence of a hemorrhagic tendency, or the appearance at some of its stages of purple or petechial spots would indicate.

Judging from the perfect silence with which most of our standard authors on the practice of medicine have treated this disease, and the confusion which seems to exist in the minds of some of those who have alluded to it, it really seems that there has been an absence of information on the subject, mostly, perhaps, growing out of the fact that so many other diseases have been treated of under the same name.

That there is a distinct disease commonly known as *spotted fever*, *sui generis* in its nature, and better entitled to this than any other appellation, no one can watch its progress in well-marked cases and study its history without being fully convinced. Yet it is so multifarious in its symptoms, bringing in its train so many of the malignant phenomena which sometimes attend other diseases, and still so rare in its visitations, that it is not strange when it does occur that it should often be misnamed and confounded with and treated of under the names of other and distinct diseases, which to the eyes of the beholder, who is perhaps a stranger to it, it seems most closely to resemble.

I have said it is sometimes confounded with typhus and typhoid fever, to which the milder forms of it have some resemblance, especially in its low grade of action, in its hemorrhagic tendency, petechial eruptions or purple spots, and perhaps in some other respects. Yet it differs much in its violent invasion and progress, in its short duration in fatal cases, in its agonizing pains, in its early numbness or paralysis, and in many other essential particulars. On this head Dr. Elisha Bartlett, who is probably the best authority on this continent on the subject of typhus and typhoid fever, and who evidently thinks spotted fever is not of this character, says in his work on fever:—

“It is not easy at the present day, upon such evidence as we possess, to decide with any confidence upon the precise character of the spotted fever of New England. Without going any farther into the consideration of this question here, I will merely observe, that an examination of most of the records that have been left us of this disease has induced me to believe that

it belongs to that class of *new* and more or less temporary epidemics, each having its peculiar character, and marked by its peculiar phenomena, and depending upon new and peculiar combinations of unknown morbid influences—which have always from time to time made their appearance, rather than to the class of established and permanent maladies.”

It is evident that Dr. Bartlett thought it a new disease having a pathology distinct and peculiar, though perhaps not well understood; entitled to the name which it bears, and should not be confounded with any of our “established and permanent maladies,” many of which it resembles in some particulars.

Whilst to those who are entirely ignorant of its character and history it may sometimes be disguised under its resemblance to hysteria, scarlatina, congestive fever, acute hydrocephalus internus, phrenitis, colic, and typhoid pneumonia, yet it is so evident it should not be confounded with any of these that I will not attempt to draw the distinction between them. I am sure no one who ever meets with a well-marked case of spotted fever, after he has been made familiar with its history, will ever mistake it for any of these. Whilst in the intense pain and soreness of a joint or a limb it closely resembles acute rheumatism, the analogy stops there, and the extreme prostration, the peculiar and varying pulse, the nausea and vomiting, the deranged breathing and vision, the cold or mottled surface, the purple spots in many instances, the syncope and paralysis—all or a portion of these symptoms, with often others added scarcely less striking, will soon convince the physician that he is not dealing with a simple case of rheumatism. Cerebro-spinal meningitis has occasionally been confounded with spotted fever, and in extreme and unusual cases of the former there is doubtless sometimes a striking similitude between the phenomena which attend the two diseases. We will not think this very strange, however, when we remember that both these diseases probably hold their seats in the cerebro-spinal system of nerves. Cerebro-spinal meningitis has in the general a history and pathology of its own, which though varying somewhat in different localities and in different epidemics is yet sufficiently definite and distinct as to give it a place among our “permanent and established” diseases; and though in extreme malignant and otherwise rare and unusual cases, it may exhibit many of the symptoms which more usually attend spotted fever, yet in the main the diagnosis between the two diseases will not be difficult.

In cerebro-spinal meningitis of an ordinary or usually well-marked character we find this condition presented (I quote from *Watson's Practice*, *Condie's Notes*, page 328). The picture is not overdrawn, nor yet does it fall short of a correct representation of the disease, without marking any of its extremes:—

“The disease is in general characterized by acute and fixed pain in the head, rachialgia, aversion to light, injection of the conjunctivæ, increased sensibility of the surface, acute cries, low muttering delirium or coma, pain and stiffness of the posterior cervical muscles, with permanent retraction

of the head, often rigidity of the large extensors of the spine, spasmodic tremors or twitchings of the muscles, particularly of the face, and tetanic convulsions of the limbs. When a disease marked by several or all of the above symptoms occurs, especially as an epidemic, we may pretty confidently pronounce it to be cerebro-spinal meningitis."

Compare this description with the one given by Dr. North of spotted fever (before quoted), or that of the committee appointed by the Massachusetts Medical Society, too long for insertion here, or with the symptoms which were observed in the three fatal cases detailed in the beginning of this article, and the difference between the two diseases, as they ordinarily appear, will be at once admitted to be both marked and manifest. The sore throat which seems to be invariable in spotted fever is never present in cerebro-spinal meningitis. In the latter the pain begins in the head, and though not always confined to that point, is yet much more troublesome there and along the course of the spine than at any other portion of the body, whilst in spotted fever the pain frequently begins at some other point than the head, often in a joint of one of the extremities, or the wrist, finger, toe, or stomach. Fits of syncope occur often in spotted fever, never in cerebro-spinal meningitis; intolerance of light and sound, tonic rigidity of the muscles of the back and neck, as in opisthotonos, are almost constant symptoms in cerebro-spinal meningitis, whilst they are of rare occurrence in spotted fever; petechial or purple spots in spotted fever, though not considered pathognomonic, are present in a greater or less number of the cases in all the epidemics I have read of, and in fatal cases they are rarely absent, whilst in cerebro-spinal meningitis, even in those cases which prove fatal, their presence is the exception to the general rule, whilst in most of the epidemics which I have read of, they did not appear in any case, at any stage of the disease. In this place, where the disease has prevailed to a considerable extent on more than one occasion, I never saw petechial or purple spots in any instance, and Dr. Ames, in all the cases reported by him, speaks of purple spots in one single instance only. Purple spots in spotted fever not unfrequently make their appearance twenty-four or thirty-six hours before any other morbid manifestation is observed, as is shown in the first case detailed in this paper as well as by the published accounts of the disease—in cerebro-spinal meningitis, never. Death, when it takes place in cerebro-spinal meningitis, usually occurs in four or five days—in spotted fever it rarely takes place after forty-eight hours, and generally within twenty-four hours; cerebro-spinal meningitis generally attacks the male sex, and in large epidemics it is said not to have attacked a female—in Ireland during a large epidemic "boys were exclusively attacked." In Texas there was not a single instance of a female having it, and in France it was confined "for the most part to the young conscripts." In spotted fever females are most often attacked, and generally those of a delicate and nervous constitution. The six cases spoken of

as having occurred in this place were all females. Another fact which may serve to establish an essential difference between the two diseases may be observed in the effect which remedies have been found to exert over them. In cerebro-spinal meningitis the remedial agents most popular and generally relied upon are evacnants and antiphlogistics, such as cupping, leeching, and general bloodletting, tartar-emetic, mercurials, active purgatives, and other depletants. I am aware that this mode of treatment is not universally approved, but still it is probably the one most generally adopted, and is said by many to exert a most happy influence over the disease, whilst in spotted fever they not only afford no relief but are supposed by many to be absolutely mischievous, often speedily hastening a fatal termination with the greatest certainty. On the other hand, heating external applications, with stimulating drinks, as wine, brandy, camphor and opium are not only tolerated in what would be considered heroic and unjustifiable doses in other diseases, but are positively curative in their effects.

The prognosis of spotted fever is not generally difficult. The symptoms which indicate the greatest malignity of the disease are a long and severe chill, with surface remaining cold and mottled, or difficult reaction, and if established at all of short duration, or in inverse ratio to the chill; the early appearance of petechiæ—the darker the more fatal their indication; a bloodless, shrivelled, and par-boiled appearance of the tongue, mouth, and throat; troublesome nausea and vomiting with eructations of gas; cholera-morbus; numbness, paralysis; rigidity of limbs with agonizing pains in the extremities, head, and stomach; great prostration; difficult deglutition; double or triple vision or blindness; fits of syncope and convulsions or coma. When all or many of these symptoms are present the case may be considered as hopeless. Authors say, however, that recovery does take place sometimes when many of these usually fatal symptoms occur, and that patients are occasionally “restored to life and health after they have apparently met the cold embraces of death,” though I apprehend that instances of the kind are very rare.

When the chill is of short duration, or if reaction is complete with a hot skin, a free perspiration, and full pulse; when the tongue is of a natural colour; if there is no nausea or vomiting, or if this has been overcome, and appropriate remedies can be retained; if the prostration of strength is not extreme, and there is delirium instead of coma, the probability is that convalescence will commence in from twenty-four to sixty hours, and end in the recovery of the patient in a few days, or if the disease continues, it will assume the form of a “mild typhus of uncertain duration,” and after an indefinite number of days or weeks, terminate in recovery. When petechiæ exist in cases which recover they are apt to result in troublesome ulcerations or sores.

As to the cause of spotted fever we know but little. That it is not contagious all agree. Many suggestions have been hazarded but nothing

satisfactory. It is most probably a *blood poison*, which owes its origin to some atmospheric or planetary changes or influences which we do not as yet comprehend.

The records which have been left us in relation to the post-mortem lesions of spotted fever point to the brain as their principal seat, though they are few and unsatisfactory in relation to the nature of these lesions. After witnessing its phenomena during life it would require the most numerous, best authenticated, and most overwhelming array of post-mortem evidences to convince me that a disease so essentially asthenic in its outward manifestations, could leave post-mortem lesions of an inflammatory character.

The pathology of spotted fever is not well understood. What the peculiar morbid influence is which is at work upon the great nervous centres of the brain and spine we do not know. The profound coma, the deranged circulation, the intense nervous pains in the joints and muscles; the numbness, paralysis, blindness, spasms, and convulsions; the deranged sensations; the delirium, mania, and hysterical symptoms; the distressed breathing without organic changes in the lungs; the nausea, vomiting, and purging without the presence of any offensive matter or traces of any morbid lesions in the alimentary canal, all conspire to show that some powerful and deadly poison is at work upon these great centres. That it is not an inflammation, we have good reason to believe, but in what way it produces these peculiar phenomena is as yet but conjecture. Like cholera, and other rare and fatal epidemics which make only occasional and transient visitations among us, though we have watched their progress, and recorded their phenomena, and perhaps arrived at a conclusion more or less just concerning their treatment, we are yet, in the present state of our knowledge, not permitted to know their essential nature, or to comprehend the laws which regulate their appearance.

In relation to the treatment of spotted fever we perhaps know more than we do of the causes which work its production or the influences which regulate its morbid action. In many places where it prevailed during the years alluded to, it was marked by a fearful mortality, and was looked upon with but little less dread than the plague—killing half and sometimes more than half of those attacked. But if we may believe the published accounts which we have of it, it was afterwards regarded by many as a very manageable disease, and much more amenable to treatment than was at first supposed.

The most approved plan of treatment, and I have no doubt the most successful and appropriate one is the avoidance in the early stages of the disease of all remedies known as evacuants, depletants, and antiphlogistics, and the substitution in their stead of remedial agents of an entirely opposite nature, such as hot and sweating external applications, sinapisms, blisters, hot fomentations, bottles of hot water or hot stones, or blocks of wood boiled in hot water, or hot steam conveyed under the bedclothes,

together with the internal use of stimulating teas, wine, brandy, camphor, bark, opium and the like. Everything in fact which is calculated to determine to the surface, or produce and maintain an increased vigor in the arterial and capillary system. There seems to be a wonderful degree of tolerance for stimulants and opiates by patients suffering with this disease. Two bottles of Madeira or Port wine have very frequently been given within twenty-four hours, and sometimes that quantity in twelve hours, besides other stimulating and heating remedies, and with good effect. One physician tells us he has given as much as a half gallon of brandy with one bottle of wine and 240 drops of laudanum, besides other stimulating remedies within twenty-four hours, in a case "severely attacked with universal pains, totally deranged, very cold, eyes red and suffused, livid spots in various parts of the body, and deglutition difficult. * * * * Symptoms very much resembling hydrophobia," at the end of which time his patient "could see well, had his vision perfectly restored, was easy, and not the least symptom of intoxication any more than he would have had if he had drank nothing but cold water."

Drs. Haskell, Spooner, and Holmes, in their account of spotted fever, say :—

"To what extent the most powerful of these diffusible stimuli may be safely and necessarily employed the following facts will show : A young woman, aged about 20 years, who recovered from the disease, being violently attacked, and a high delirium with great distress supervening, took more than a quart of brandy, and not less than twenty grains of good Turkey opium in less than twelve hours, and before any material mitigation of her disease could be obtained, and what is truly wonderful without the least appearance of intoxication. Indeed, we have been obliged frequently to administer ten grains of opium for a dose in some of the most violent cases, * * * * and have never known it to produce stupor in a single instance."

There are many other instances on record corroborative of these facts. In one case of recovery of this disease in the treatment of which I assisted, but which for private reasons I have not detailed here, stimulants and opiates were borne to a most surprising extent with marked benefit to the disease and without giving rise to the ordinary intoxicating or otherwise unpleasant effects of these remedies.

I have ever been opposed to heroic remedies, or inordinate doses of medicine, and in most diseases look for my greatest assistance in bringing about a cure to the "*vis medicatrix naturæ*," but it seems to me if there is a disease in which not only prompt and active but even heroic medication is justifiable, it is in the one under consideration. True, my experience with it is limited, but yet it has been sufficient to satisfy me that I have never met with a disease in which the use of stimulants and opiates was tolerated to the same extent.

Of course all patients will not bear such quantities of stimulants and

opiates as are indicated above, and indeed I am persuaded that the cases are very few, even in this disease, in the treatment of which such heroic dosing should be imitated, or would even be justifiable. In all cases these remedies should be gradually withdrawn as soon as the urgent symptoms have been relieved.

In relation also to the external or sweating remedies, it is advised by all not to push them after the functions of the skin have been fully established, and attended with sufficient warmth and a good degree of arterial reaction.

As regards also the administration of cathartics, this is not only admissible but beneficial after the first stage or the stage of congestion and prostration has passed off.

I have not attempted more than a general outline of the plan of treatment which is thought most appropriate and successful in this disease, without reference to the special application of particular remedies, or such as are regarded as of secondary or subordinate value.

Believing that I have had not only opportunities but incentives to investigate this disease not known or felt by most practitioners, I thought proper to give not only my own crude observations and reflections in regard to it, but something of what is known and taught of it by others. I am aware that the sketch is very imperfect, but it is as full as the limited time at my disposal would allow me to make it. Should the disease prevail here in any other than a sporadic form, which at this time does not seem probable, I may take occasion to allude to the subject hereafter.

ART. II.—*Enterocolitis, or Chronic Diarrhœa. With some Practical Observations upon its Nature and Treatment.* By W. KEMPSTER, M.D., of Syracuse, N. Y.

THE dividing line between acute diarrhœa and dysentery is as clearly defined and as readily recognized as it is between most diseases of different natures and presenting different degrees of intensity, although affecting the same tissue.

But the name chronic diarrhœa is usually bestowed upon a long-continued flux from the bowels, even after the discharges have lost their feculent appearance and have become dysenteric in their character.

Some confusion has arisen from this application of the same nosological term to apparently different conditions of the structure affected, and not a little fault has been found with this seemingly loose and inaccurate nomenclature by those technical gentlemen who must be "critical or nothing."

It is the object of the writer to reconcile, if possible, the seeming differ-

ences existing between some members of the profession upon this subject, by a few observations upon a complaint which has heretofore been known as chronic diarrhœa, or chronic dysentery, but which is now known, particularly among medical men who have served in our armies, as chronic camp diarrhœa, and which I shall discuss under the more scientific and preferable title of *Entero-colitis*.

This disease, although usually contracted in the army, clings to the patient after his return to civil life with remarkable pertinacity, and he is long after subject to similar attacks. It is hoped that these remarks, based upon a somewhat extensive experience, may prove useful to those who have not enjoyed the benefit of an army practice, but who are witnessing occasional outbreaks of this complaint.

A combination of causes probably tends to produce this disease, and among the most prominent may be mentioned crowding men together in transports, barracks, or in camp, especially if proper precaution be not used to dispose of the excrementitious material and noxious vapours arising from decomposing animal and vegetable matter; a scorbutic taint, induced by the withdrawal of vegetables and fresh meat; the use of impure water containing decaying vegetable organisms; badly cooked and improperly masticated food; last, but by no means least, exposure to the hot sun, and lying upon the ground during the night, which in the South is frequently cold. The season of the year in which it commonly manifests itself is during the early summer and in the autumn, at a period, too, when the paludal fevers prevail extensively. These two classes of disease frequently coexist in malarial regions. This fact has led to extended inquiry: whether the same miasm that produces intermittent and remittent fevers would not, under some varying circumstances or conditions, which we cannot fully explain, produce bowel affections. To this inquiry I am strongly inclined to give an affirmative answer. The English surgeons connected with the armies in India have observed that dysentery (entero-colitis) prevails in the inverse ratio of the intensity of paludal fevers; the same observation has been remarked upon by many of the surgeons of our armies. Among our southern troops, especially those stationed about the bayou districts of Louisiana, intermittent fever was a fatal complication, this disease developing itself rapidly and with great intensity when the patient was convalescing from diarrhœa, and frequently causing death when the medical attendant least expected it. It was observed, too, in these sections that an attack of intermittent fever exempted the soldier from diarrhœa, and *vice versa*, although, as remarked above, either disease might complicate the other.

The exciting cause can generally be traced to some irregularity in eating and drinking, combined with exhaustion consequent upon a long or forced march in the hot sun. The writer has frequently observed this result, particularly when the men were compelled to omit an accustomed meal.

In the hospital to which I was attached during the last two years of the war, it was remarked that a large number of diarrhœa cases occurred among the full diet patients every Monday. This was accounted for by the fact that Sunday's dinner consisted of roast pork and beans. I believe that the bean ration had much to do with producing diarrhœa in our armies. The beans were not always prepared *secundum artem*, and being swallowed half cooked and half masticated, operated very much like a brisk cathartic, thus opening the way which exposes the patient, already prepared by malarial poison, to the long tedious disease which so often follows.

Those men who went from the North to the extreme South were occasionally troubled with a painless, bloody diarrhœa, which did not incommode them much; they became more easily acclimated, and had none of the fever usual to those who visit the far South for the first time; those who did not have this form of diarrhœa were troubled, more or less, with the exacerbating fevers. It may be supposed that this diarrhœa was one of Nature's efforts to remove the extra amount of carbonaceous material which had been accumulated in the camps near home previous to their departure, and where they were fed with a large amount of fat meat and other food abounding in carbon. If carbon, in some form, be a cause of intermittents, as some have argued, we certainly have a partial explanation of the fact that when diarrhœa attacks the individual he is exempt from intermittent or paludal fevers, by reason of the extra amount of carbon being eliminated during the course of the disease. This form of diarrhœa would sometimes recur when the soldier remained for a length of time in camp, eating largely of the carbonaceous elements of food, and which frequently ceased after the march was resumed.

The attack may commence insidiously, or openly, and at once, the patient taking no notice of the first few evacuations, or indeed remaining indifferent until the diarrhœa assumes grave symptoms and is exceedingly difficult to control, the popular idea being that a "clearing out" will do them good. But the disease may continue notwithstanding it is seen from the first, bidding defiance to all our remedies, and hurrying the patient to the grave. Undoubtedly, however, many cases might have been saved had timely measures been taken to stay its ravages. The first symptom which the patient notices is a very free evacuation unaccompanied by pain; this is soon followed by others with some griping, succeeded by tormina and tenesmus, which increase in intensity until the patient feels inclined to remain continually at stool as the only means of obtaining partial relief. The initiatory discharges are generally free from mucus or blood; afterwards the evacuations contain, or are wholly composed of, frothy mucus tinged with blood. The system now becomes affected, the patient feels tired, and by spells chilly and feverish; there is loss of appetite, thirst, and a clammy mouth; the tongue is covered with a thin whitish coat; the pulse is feeble and rapid; there is pain in the lumbar region, and a

sensation of heat throughout the intestines and in the bladder ; a desire to urinate with inability to fully accomplish the act. There may be vertigo and slight nausea, but rarely any vomiting. These symptoms continue from three to five or six days. If the disease be not checked, the pulse then becomes fuller and less rapid, the discharges not quite so frequent, the vertigo disappears, the appetite is better, and the patient is apt to flatter himself into the belief that he is rapidly recovering. The characteristic evacuations, however, recur frequently until the malady assumes the chronic form, and continues with variable degrees of intensity, gradually but certainly reducing the strength and vigour of the patient, undermining his constitution, unfitting him for his duties, until, by some excessive fatigue or unusual exposure, he is compelled to seek his bed. During the first days of the attack, the dejections have more of a dysenteric character, which leaves them as the disease becomes chronic. The length of time which a patient may be able to remain in active service varies from one to six or even twelve months, according to the location and surrounding circumstances, before he is compelled to give up. It usually takes on the dysenteric form, which, unless checked, will prove rapidly fatal ; or the pernicious or congestive fever may attack the patient, who, in either of these events, is unable to withstand for any length of time the shock of so serious a disease.

There is, during the continuance of entero-colitis, a great variation in the appearance and consistency of the alvine discharges ; at times they may appear of normal colour, but much thinner than usual ; again they may be of a buff colour mixed with a glairy or frothy mucus, or tinged with blood ; or they may appear of a natural consistency, but almost or entirely white, not unlike the dried dung of dogs ; or, again, they may be watery, feculent, and of an exceedingly offensive putrid odour. The digestive functions are impaired, so that it is not unusual to see particles of undigested food in the feces. These appearances are most frequently observed in camp. In the hospital, the cases are of a more aggravated nature. On admission the patient is emaciated and debilitated, homesick, and not unfrequently sick of life ; he has a cadaveric appearance ; the eye presents a peculiar, unusual brightness or lustre, with a contracted pupil ; the body exhales a pungent, sickening odour, and the skin is dry and furfuraceous. The pulse is thready and rapid, the tongue has a thick brown coat, with sometimes a furrow running through the middle its entire length, or again it may be dry and red, with protruding papillæ.

The intellect is not unusually impaired ; the patients will whine and cry without any pretext whatever ; they are dull of apprehension, often answering questions slowly and incoherently ; they sometimes become stupefied and almost comatose, in which case the evacuations are involuntary. When this last symptom appears it has, in my experience, been a sure precursor

of death, notwithstanding the patient may rally from his comatose condition.

In the diarrhœa which our prisoners of war contracted in the southern "pens," and which partook eminently of the scorbutic diathesis, the symptoms were aggravated in an extreme degree. The long-continued drain upon the system impaired the mental faculties, as well as those of the body, reducing the unfortunate victim to a state bordering upon idiocy, besides ruining the constitutions of our best and bravest, sowing the seeds which, in a few years at farthest, will ripen into phthisis and its kindred disorders, unfitting them for the duties of life, and dragging them to early graves.

Much has been added to our existing knowledge of the pathology of this disease. The distinguishing pathological features of diarrhœa and dysentery, as observed in the standard works, are in the one (diarrhœa) a congested or inflamed condition of the small intestine, usually confined to the ileum; in the other (dysentery), the principal feature is congestion, inflammation, or ulceration of the colon. In the disease under consideration, we have both the small and large intestines taking on this abnormal action, these parts being found more or less diseased in proportion to the symptoms which were apparent during life, being more or less grave, ranging all the way from simple congestion to ulceration and perforation of the bowel. The colon was observed to be more extensively diseased than the ileum. In very severe cases, or after diarrhœa has continued for a long time and dysenteric symptoms supervene, which cause death, we find, on examination, a more or less ulcerated condition of the colon, according to the severity of the previous symptoms, and, lining the tube, a yellowish or brown exudation or false membrane, which can be detached in shreds. This membrane, on examination under the microscope, is found to be "composed of round lymph or pus-cells, held together by an adhesive granular matrix, more or less resembling coagulated fibrin." It is thought that this membrane is made up of epithelial cells of the diseased mucous membrane. In the milder forms, or where the patient has fallen a victim to some complication or injury, we find the colon congested and thickened, while the lower portion of the ileum is inflamed; the solitary glands are somewhat enlarged and of a dirty white or grayish appearance. Peyer's patches presented an inflamed condition, but there were no ulcers. In those cases which had continued for four or five months, the colon, besides being thickened and inflamed, presented in one portion an ulcerated sloughy condition, with here and there dark ecchymosed patches, which, on being cut into, exude a black grumous pigment matter, like partially coagulated blood. On rupturing the enlarged follicles of the ileum, a cheesy substance could be squeezed out, not unlike that seen in encysted tumours. It is quite usual to find the glands of the mesentery much enlarged and containing

a similar material to that found in the follicle before it ruptures, a condition which impairs the nutritive functions, and subjects the individual to slow starvation. In these cases the lungs are frequently found crowded with soft tubercle, although no pneumonic difficulty may be suspected during life. In the worst forms of the disease, or in those persons who were attacked with dysenteric symptoms, ulceration existed in a greater or less degree, according to the length of time the patient had borne up under the attack. In many instances the colon was found extensively ulcerated, the ulcers occurring near each other, sometimes communicating beneath the mucous coat. In all these severe forms the colon presented an unusually dark appearance, and was much softened, in some instances so much so that it would tear asunder by its own weight.

The process of ulceration usually destroys the submucous tissues for a short distance under the edge of the ulcers (which are well defined), allowing the mucous coat to drop upon the muscular, which is not infrequently found extensively injured or entirely destroyed, leaving only the peritoneal coat to prevent the escape of the contents of the intestine.

It was in these cases that the false membrane was observed, often extending not only throughout the small intestine but the larger, which was also found extensively diseased; in one case, in particular, every portion of the alimentary canal, from mouth to anus, was in an inflamed condition, and the ileum ulcerated, the patient presenting no marked febrile symptoms during his illness. In a specimen ten inches in length, taken from the colon of this man at the commencement of the descending portion, there are fifty ulcers, all clearly defined. The immediate cause of death was peritonitis induced by perforation of the colon. In preparing the specimen, it was found that other perforations of the bowel had occurred, but adhesions had been formed to the walls of the abdominal cavity, thus preventing the escape of the intestinal contents. Ulcers were found in various stages of healing, some quite healed. The entire intestinal tube was lined with a yellow and black membrane which could with ease be separated from the mucous coat.

It is now quite generally believed, by those who have given attention to the pathology of this disease, that the origin of the ulcer is in the accumulation of cellular substance (the cheesy material mentioned above) within the follicle, until the walls of it are overcome, and the contents escape; that during this accumulation of the cellular elements in the follicle a passive congestion occurs which tends to soften the mucous coat in its vicinity; and that after the escape of this material, a small ulcer exists, which takes on a sloughing condition which is in part regulated by the softening and breaking down of the adjacent membrane. It can readily be conceived that after an ulcer is once established it does not require the continued action of its cause to maintain the ulcerative process; the action of the contents of the bowel, which are constantly passing over the ulcer,

and which must necessarily be irritating in their nature, together with the peristaltic movement and passive congestion, all tend to keep up or augment the lesion established.

What this material is which fills and ruptures the follicle, and whence it is derived, are questions upon which much discussion has been had. I am inclined to the opinion set forth by Virchow, who holds that it is entirely composed of cells derived from and multiplied within the walls of the follicle in the usual way; that the formation of cells is consequent upon an increased flow of blood to the part, which flux has been produced by some local or perhaps constitutional irritation, dependent upon unwholesome ingestion or some dyscrasia of the blood, whether scorbutic or malarial, or both combined. The diathesis is then ready to operate whenever the opportunity offers. The ulcer spreads in the usual way, by breaking down the contiguous structure, which passes off with the contents of the bowel, and which can sometimes be seen in the fecal discharges. Pus detected in the evacuations would, of course, confirm a suspicion that ulceration existed, although its absence would not prove the contrary. Dr. Salisbury claims to have seen torula cells in the discharges, indicating a fermentative process, which must add to the existing irritation, and would seem to call for a system of medication which will destroy this action.

Of the other abdominal viscera, the kidney presents the most marked alteration; and it is confidently asserted that a prognosis may be aided by an examination of the urine. If it contains albumen and tubular casts early in the disease, death usually ensues, when the renal organs are found highly congested and the uriniferous tubules loaded with detrition. Hepatic or splenic complications are uncommon.

In the *treatment* of this disease we must be guided in great measure by its cause, its duration, and the number of times the patient has been attacked; the season, the atmospheric and telluric influences by which he is surrounded, and, in army practice, whether he is in the field or hospital. Commencing with the simplest form, or that produced by eating irritating ingesta, I have invariably been able to cut it short, when seen within forty-eight hours from the first symptom, with *ol. ricini* ʒj, *tr. opii*, *ext. zing. rhad.*, *āā* ʒss at one dose. I have not found that the diarrhœa would cease after allowing the bowel to clear itself of the offending material without medicinal aid, but on the contrary a disposition to continue was manifested and which would ultimately require a decided course of treatment to check. After the disease has continued for several days, which is most likely to have been the case when we first see the patient, the *tr. opii*, in doses of from half a drachm to one drachm, repeated every five or six hours, has in my hands proved very beneficial. In the form of diarrhœa resulting from an excess of carbonaceous food, the supply must be entirely cut off, and the patient limited to a light vegetable diet, until the system has become rid of its excess, which will announce itself by some griping and tenesmus,

with a feeling of lassitude. The discharges should now be stopped with the mixture already mentioned. Ripe fruits are excellent for food and medicine in this form of the disease, and under this pleasant mode of treatment it is not unusual for the disorder to correct itself after depletion has been carried far enough.

This variety is by no means allied to the scorbutic taint; it was chiefly observed among those men who were sent to the extreme South, who had seen no field service, and who had consumed large quantities of animal food previous to their departure from camps near home.

The most troublesome and fatal of all forms of this disorder is that connected with the scorbutic diathesis, and which I believe constituted more than two-thirds of all the cases occurring during the last two years of the war. This cachexia is known to exist when we find spongy gums, bleeding on slight pressure. A not unfrequent symptom is hemeralopia, or night-blindness, which can frequently be traced to a scorbutic origin, and which will aid in the diagnosis. The reopening of old scars and ulcers are other indications which should put the practitioner on his guard. When this state exists, we can very often relieve the diarrhœa by paying no attention to it whatever, giving our patients potatoes or fresh vegetables, or fruits of any kind (except water melons) instead of pills. In other words, by directing our attention to the scorbutic condition, the diarrhœa will usually yield at once.

During the green corn season, and especially after the order issued from the War Department in 1863, permitting troops to take the ears, there was a marked diminution in the number of cases of diarrhœa, and this, too, when the army was engaged in an active campaign. When this cachexia is known to exist, the patients should be placed upon a free vegetable diet using milk to drink. I have seen great disadvantages result, as I believe, from a restricted diet in all cases of entero-colitis. The disease is asthenic, and the system must be supported or the patient will die. I cannot deprecate in too decided a manner the usual corn-starch and farina slops which are so often doled out to this class of cases. They are not prepared properly one time out of three at home even, while in the army they are hardly ever fit to touch. Oysters, eggs, chicken and mutton broths, and beef essences, all well seasoned, are usually relished. When we have reason to believe that the intestine is ulcerated, concentrated nourishment should be given in order to relieve the bowel from moving a large quantity of excrementitious matter which will excite peristaltic action and aggravate the disease. It occurs to me that Liebig's *extractum carnis* would be a good preparation to use, although I have never given it a trial. The use of fats must be interdicted, also all the coarser articles of food. I am in the habit of allowing my patients to drink plentifully of clear cold water. In connection with the dietetic treatment, I have generally given the *mist. vini Gallici*, or porter, as the case requires or the taste prefers. Milk punch is more agreeable to many, and should be given.

The medicinal treatment that I have found most beneficial in this form has been a combination of vegetable astringents with the chalk mixture, as follows: R.—Mist. cretæ, tr. catechu, āā ʒj; ext. hæmatox. fluid. ʒij. Of this a teaspoonful may be given every four hours. This mixture has been successful in my hands after all other remedies, such as the various preparations of opium, acetate of lead, bismuth, tannin, &c., had failed. A plan of treatment that I have found admirably suited to this and other forms of diarrhœa, is to permit the patient to eat all he desires of the ripe fruit of the *Rubus villosus* and *Rubus trivialis* (blackberry and dewberry). I have yet to learn of its failure in checking the most decided and severe forms of entero-colitis. During the spring and summer of 1863, the writer had an attack of this loathsome disease, which defied all the usual forms of medication. From the time this wholesome fruit ripened until it was entirely gone my difficulty disappeared. Such was the case also with other officers and men who chose to exert themselves in procuring the berry. An infusion of the bark of the root is a favourite remedy, but the fluid extract is a more elegant and reliable preparation. After the disease has become decidedly chronic, or when extensive ulceration is presumed to exist, the treatment varies somewhat, although I am disposed always to give the vegetable astringents a trial, with the understanding, however, that they do not always succeed. This is a disease that cannot be forced, but may be coaxed; after persisting in one plan of treatment for a time, if unsuccessful, some other must be substituted. The course so usually recommended by our standard authorities (I refer to the opium and acetate of lead), and which has been so persistently used by some, in my observation and experience is an utter failure. One of the most unsuccessful men in the treatment of this disease that I have ever met with, could not be induced to believe that there was any other rational mode of treating this class of patients. Our old "sheet anchor," opium, is here unreliable and very often useless. Bismuth, in two scruple doses and under, I have seen fail in so many instances as to give it no place among my remedies for this form of the disorder.

Great benefit has been derived from the use of the mineral acids when judiciously administered. If, after the first few doses have been given, the disease does not show a disposition to yield, the remedy must be stopped at once, or it will do positive harm.

The following formula I have found very efficient, and can earnestly recommend: R.—Acid. sulph. arom. ʒij; tinct. cardamom. comp. ʒij; ext. rhei fluid. ʒiss; aqua, ʒiv.—M. S.—Two tablespoonfuls at once, and continue by giving one tablespoonful every four hours afterwards. If, as above remarked, it does not check the disease at the expiration of twenty-four or thirty-six hours, it must be stopped or it will injure the patient by aggravating the symptoms. Next to the dilute sulphuric, I prefer the aromatic sulphuric acid, and then the nitric; the two former are less liable to pro-

duce irritation than the latter. Under the acid treatment the stools usually lose their clay or white colour and regain their normal appearance, and are tinged with bile; the integument will also lose its furfuraceous appearance and become more natural in its action. Should this preparation fail, I have found the nitrate of silver in the form of pills, from one-half to one grain mixed with bread, and administered every four hours, to be an exceedingly valuable remedy. The tincture of the chloride of iron has been lauded for its efficiency in reducing the frequency of the evacuations, but I have not found it as successful as the measures indicated above.¹

In the spring of 1865, a combination of Monsel's salt (*ferri persulphas*) with quinia was recommended in the dose of from two to three grains of the former to five or six of the latter, but in the few cases where it was given it appeared to increase the existing irritation, and consequently gave me an unfavourable impression of its efficacy. At times the discharges exacerbate, occurring with greater frequency towards night, in which case quinia should hold a prominent place in the prescription. The following combination has proved satisfactory to me in many cases of this kind: R. —Quinia sulph. $\mathfrak{z}\text{j}$; acid. sulph. arom. $\mathfrak{z}\text{iss}$; aqua, $\mathfrak{z}\text{ijss}$.—M. S.—Take a teaspoonful every four hours. Rest in the recumbent posture should be insisted upon. I believe the disease is often prolonged by the restlessness of the patient. Tenesmus is frequently relieved by the injection of cold water after each discharge from the bowels.

Starch and laudanum injections, as a remedy for the disease, are useless; for the lesion is higher in the bowel than they can be thrown. After the disease has been checked, quite likely the patient will have some irregularity of the bowels with borborygmus. This is undoubtedly due to atony of the muscular coat, and will yield readily to the following: R.—Quinia, gr. ij; ferri sulph. exsicc. gr. ij; strychnia sulph. gr. $\frac{1}{25}$ at a dose, repeated three times a day.

I have not observed that stupes, or local applications of any kind, do much good in the treatment; the abdomen should be covered with flannel and kept warm; a cold, damp day will aggravate the disease in any stage. Leeching, or bleeding in any form, is inadmissible. I never saw the least good result from it, although it was often repeated by some of the medical officers attached to the hospital. On the contrary, I believe it does harm, by inducing an adynamic condition which we should endeavour by all means to prevent.

There is one form of treatment yet to be spoken of, and which is one of the utmost importance. I refer to change of climate. There is no other disease in the category which responds sooner or more effectually to such a change than this. When the patient's strength will admit, he should be

¹ [Of all the preparations of iron, we have found the syrup of the protonitrate, in doses of from 25 to 40 drops, three times a day, the most effectual in arresting this disease.—EDITOR.]

removed to some high latitude, away from malarial influences, and if put upon a proper diet he will need but little else done for him. During the late war this fact was acted upon to a considerable extent and with excellent results. Circular No. 6, S. G. O., 1865, gives the percentage of deaths from this disease, in the second year of the war, at various hospitals situated near where our armies were operating, as follows: In the New England general hospitals, one in every forty-nine (48.8). In New York city and State, with the hospital at Newark, N. J., one in every nineteen (18.7); the hospitals in Pennsylvania and Delaware, one to every fifteen cases; in Maryland and the District of Columbia, including Washington, Georgetown, Alexandria, Frederick, Baltimore, Annapolis, etc., one in every eleven cases (11.4); at Fortress Monroe, and on the coast of North and South Carolina, one in every seven cases (7.1). The same law was observed in the percentage of cases in the different latitudes of the west; the greatest rates of mortality, however, not occurring at the point farthest south, but at Cairo, Ill., which is situated upon a peninsula subject to the "most intense malarial influences," and where the mortality reached the enormous figure of one in 3.98, or over 25 per cent., while in Memphis and New Orleans, the percentage was one in 5.4 and 4.7 respectively. Abundant evidence is thus furnished that proper climacteric influences exert a beneficial effect upon the treatment of this disease; and that malarial exhalations tend not only to impede recovery, but to increase mortality.

I am not aware that any statistics have yet been compiled relative to mortality from this cause among our prisoners at Andersonville and other places, but I learn of those who have been incarcerated, that the death rate, as might have been expected, was much larger during those seasons when vegetable decomposition was most rapidly carried on than in any other; and also after a fall of rain, followed by a hot sun. Home exerted a beneficial influence upon those who could avail themselves of its comforts. Many prisoners who came to our hospital in an emaciated condition, but who were able to take advantage of the usual furlough, returned at the expiration of thirty days, ready for the field, while their less fortunate comrades, or those who had not been prisoners, convalesced slowly, and remained weak and sickly for months. The government acted upon this fact, and ordered men who were suffering with this complaint to the hospitals nearest their homes, whence they were furloughed.

One of the most distressing symptoms is nostalgia. Time after time I have seen men droop and waste away, and notwithstanding every effort for their welfare, die, even after the flux had ceased. It occurs to me that every patient presenting this feature fell a victim to the great desire of his existence, which in his particular case could not be gratified. Nostalgia was more particularly manifest in this disease and in typhoid fever, its frequency and prominence being in the order given.

Very much depends upon the care of the patient after the flux has

ceased; we are by no means to regard the patient cured because the frequent painful evacuations are suspended. On the contrary, it is not unusual for them to recur with increased violence after a short intermission. The patient should not be permitted to leave his bed for several days after all indications of the disease have disappeared. The diet, too, must be properly regulated, none of the coarser articles of food should be used, and the patient must be told of the fatal consequences of over-eating. Frequent sponging with the nitro-muriatic acid bath mixture will be refreshing, and will relieve the parched condition of the skin. Constipation sometimes occurs after the disease has been checked; if not dependent upon atony of the muscular coat, a mild dose of ext. rhei fld. with a little ginger or peppermint, or both, will usually do all that is required. Active cathartics must not be given. The tendency to return has already been mentioned; the patient should be told of this, and also that he should take immediate steps to have the first manifestations checked. I have used the acid mixture given above, in cases of recurring diarrhœa with good success; chlorodyne¹ will also be found beneficial.

Complications and Sequelæ.—The liability of intermittent fever to follow convalescence from entero-colitis has been mentioned. It must be arrested at once, or it will destroy the patient; in other words, it must be treated as an attack of congestive fever, by large doses of quinia. By large doses I mean from 20 to 30 or even 40 grains, according to the atmospheric condition and the severity of the symptoms. This dose I have seen repeatedly administered with the effect of saving life. Pneumonia is a complication which I have treated simply by increasing the quantity and changing the quality of the stimulants; giving, in addition to the brandy or whiskey, carb. of ammonia in full doses. I cannot speak with certainty, but I do not think that this complication increases the mortality so much as one would *a priori* expect, unless the person was extremely debilitated before the pneumonic attack occurred. Phthisis occurred in a number of instances, but was usually confined to a class of patients presenting a decidedly scrofulous cachexia. Endeavours were used to mitigate the sufferer's symptoms, but little could be done. It was observed that checking the diarrhœa hastened the end. The post-mortem examination usually revealed a tuberculous deposit in the glands of the mesentery. Diphtheria occurred in five cases, with four deaths, a mortality which illustrates the exhausting nature of the disease under consideration. Subacute bronchitis was a frequent complication, and large quantities of frothy mucus were expectorated without much effort; the cough yielded readily to appropriate remedies. Ascites occurred in a number of instances, and

¹ The following is the formula for the preparation of chlorodyne: R.—Chloroform, ʒiv; æth. sulph. ʒij; theriacæ, ʒj; mucilag. acaciæ, ʒj; morph. muriat. gr. viij; acid. hydrocyanic. dil. ʒij; ol. menth. pip. gtt. iv.—M. The dose is from 5 to 10 drops.

was usually very persistent, the fluid accumulating rapidly and in large quantities. It was observed that it did not appear so frequently after the very severe cases as after those of a milder type. Œdema of the lower extremities also occurred, and both these diseases brought their corresponding amounts of anæmia and debility. Hæmorrhoids followed frequently; they were treated with the cold douche and an unguent of ferri persulphas and simple cerate, ʒj of the former to ʒj of the latter. I found no difficulty in relieving and often curing them by these measures.

But one case of prolapsus ani, after diarrhœa, came under my observation. This was very severe; sometimes three inches of the gut would protrude. It resisted treatment; the cold douche often relieved it, and an unguent composed of tannin, morphia, and simple cerate seemed to procure more ease than any other remedy. It should be mentioned that the person in whom it existed was upwards of 60 years of age, and it had occurred some years previously during an attack of dysentery, but the bowel had returned to its normal condition on his recovery.

Another very troublesome sequel, and of which in books I can find no mention whatever, is a painful sensation situated in the supra-pubic region. It is felt most acutely in the morning, while in a recumbent posture. The pain is sharp, but of short duration, recurring frequently; the bowels are not relaxed, and the evacuations are in all respects normal in character and appearance; the appetite is not impaired, and the functions of digestion are carried on naturally. The only symptom is subjective, and consists of this neuralgic pain. It is much more acute just before a change from a dry to a moist state of the atmosphere, and at these times may cause some looseness of the bowels. Irregularity in eating causes an increase of the one prominent symptom—pain. The writer still suffers from this peculiar manifestation, although nearly three years have passed since the diarrhœa was checked. I am inclined to think that its pathological condition is a latent inflammation of the lower portions of the ileum, with hyperæsthesia; the feces collect during the night, in the colon and lower part of the ileum, thus irritating the congested portion, and causing the pain, which is usually relieved at once by a free discharge from the bowel. This opinion would also seem to be corroborated by the fact, that when the bowel is not relieved of its contents at least once during the twenty-four hours, the pain increases until the evacuation, which will be thin, is obtained. There is no tenderness over any part of the abdomen when the pain is absent; when present, pressure slightly increases it. I suppose atmospheric changes influence it, as they do rheumatism and other disorders involving the nervous system. I employ the treatment found beneficial in my own case, viz., perfect regularity in eating, and perfect regularity concerning the movements of the bowels. The diarrhœa mentioned above usually ceases after two or three movements. When the pain is excessive, it can be controlled with some preparation of opium, although it never

continues for any considerable length of time. In this, as in the primary disease, change of climate may be beneficial; but in my own case this is not obvious; for it continues as severely as when I was in the South. It is well to direct the patient to wear his clothing loosely over the abdomen; a tight waistband aggravating the symptoms.

There is yet another very distressing affection which sometimes occurs as a result of this disease, and to which I cannot give a name. To those who have suffered long from entero-colitis, or have been subjected to prison diet, it is most marked. I allude to a state of the mind which may with propriety be called mental incapacity. In this condition a feebleness of purpose, a want of stability and incoherence are exhibited. This derangement may continue for some time after the primary disease has entirely left the patients. When a question is asked they hesitate several minutes, apparently endeavouring to find language for an answer, which when made is in the fewest words. This was observed particularly, among those men who had been several months in southern prisons, suffering from the effects of entero-colitis, with the scorbutic diathesis. They would sit by the hour, gazing on the ground, paying no attention to what was going on about them. Their movements were slow; they were irritable; nothing would please them. The face wore an expression of complete dementia. The pulse was slow and soft, the pupil dilated, and the eye presented an unusual brightness. They slept very soundly, and for longer periods than a person in health. The appetite was good, and the functions of the body were normally performed. These symptoms were more like those of brain softening in its advanced stage, than any others to which I can compare them. *The brain was starved.*

In the cases examined after death, no pathological condition of the brain or its membranes was found which would account for the ante-mortem state above described.

The treatment consisted in preserving and improving the general health, and giving the patient a nourishing diet, with plenty of fresh air and exercise. Many of the cases improved very much; in fact, all who were afflicted in this way experienced relief to a certain extent; for the mental incapacity was more manifest during the existence of the original disease, than after its cessation. From this state some recovered entirely; others did not while they remained in hospital.

It is difficult to explain the causation of this sequel, unless an insufficient supply of nerve food will account for its occurrence; but were this the cause we should expect to see the symptoms cease, when the blood was restored to its normal quantity and quality, a result which was rarely observed. Nerve tonics exerted no perceptible control over it, and as stated above the only treatment persisted in was the dietetic and hygienic.

In conclusion, I may say that the disease in question is one which must be met decidedly, but with caution; if permitted to continue, it will

assuredly bring trouble to the patient, and perplexity to the practitioner; while at the outset, a few wholesome directions, with an efficient remedy, will check the tendency to mischief, and perhaps save the patient's life. When once it becomes what I have attempted to describe in the preceding pages, I know of nothing so disgusting to the sufferer, or so intractable and trying to the patience and skill of the medical attendant.

ART. III.—*On Typhlitis and Peri-Typhlitis; or, Diseases of the Cæcum and Appendix resulting in Abscess in the Right Iliac Fossa.* By ROBERTS BARTHOLOW, M. D., Lecturer on Clinical Medicine and Physician to St. John's Hospital, Cincinnati, etc. etc.

It is not my purpose to consider simple inflammation of the cæcum, or that impaction of this organ which, evidenced by pain and swelling in the right iliac region, disappears more or less promptly under appropriate treatment. The special condition, the object of inquiry in this paper, is that disease, either of the cæcum, appendix, or peri-cæcal tissue which ends in the formation of an abscess in the right iliac region.

This disease has been described under various designations, as follows: Typhlitis, Tophlo-Enteritis, Peri-Typhlitis, Cæcitis, Cæcal Abscess, Lumbar Abscess, Fecal Abscess of Iliac Fossa, etc. These terms are, of course, not synonymous; neither do they accurately express in every case the pathological condition, but rather some pronounced feature in the morbid process. Cases of this disease having, within the past year, occurred under my observation, I have been at some pains to look up the literature of the subject. Although the information is not so meagre as I had supposed before commencing my researches, it is scattered through so many periodicals that it may be useful to collect what is known into a group for more convenient study and analysis.

The best account of the diseases of the cæcum which has been published in our language is unquestionably that of Dr. Copland in his *Dictionary of Pract. Med.* This learned and indefatigable author, as his note on the bibliography and references sufficiently exhibits, neglected no source of information. In Dupuytren's *Leçons Orales de Clinique Chirurgicale faites à l'Hôtel Dieu de Paris*, etc., there is an excellent lecture on abscess in the right iliac fossa, of which Copland and subsequent writers have made liberal use. One of the most valuable monographs on the subject of Typhlitis or "Tophlo-Enteritis," is that by Dr. John Burne, Physician to Westminster Hospital. His first paper on this disease was read before the Royal Medical and Chirurgical Society on

the 27th of November, 1838, and was published in Vol. XX. of that Society's Transactions. This was followed by another paper on the same subject, the next year. These papers appear not to have received the attention which their merits deserve. For instance, Habershon merely alludes to them in the preface to his work *On the Alimentary Canal* as "a valuable paper." Previous to the publication of Dr. Burne's paper, Mr. Ferrall had described in the *Edinburgh Journal* several forms of this disease, and in the *Dublin Journal* for March and May, 1839, is an account of the morbid anatomy of a case observed by him. In the *American Cyclopædia of Practical Medicine*, vol. i. p. 80, there is an excellent *résumé* of existing knowledge on the subject of Typhlitis. A very carefully considered article is also to be found in the *Western Lancet*, vol. vii., 1848, by Dr. Hanbury Smith, who refers to a treatise on the subject by Volz, of Carlsruhe, an author whose labours have not attracted the attention of any English writer upon the disease. A short account of the anomalies of position and the diseases of the cæcum and appendix is given in vol. ii. of *Rokitansky's Pathological Anatomy*, but it is by no means a satisfactory treatment of the subject. Also, in *Wilks' Pathological Anatomy*, p. 299, there is a brief statement of observations upon intestinal concretions and abscess of the iliac fossa. In the *London Lancet*, vol. i., 1860, there is a short and incomplete article on typhlo-enteritis, based upon some cases reported from the London hospitals. No allusion has thus far been made to the elaborate *Handbuch der Speciellen Pathologie und Therapie*, which contains in the volume devoted to diseases of the chylopoietic viscera by Prof. Bamberger, of Wurzburg, a very full chapter on Typhlitis and Peri-Typhlitis (pp. 329-45). The subject is more exhaustively treated by this author than by any other. Prof. Bamberger has not omitted inquiry into the English contributions to the same subject, and has availed himself of the labours of Ferrall, Copland, and Burne.

In general, the references to this subject in the systematic works on medicine are meagre and unsatisfactory. The article in Copland's Dictionary is the most complete. Wood does not enter into the consideration of typhlitis with any degree of particularity, and Aitkin does little more than allude to it. Flint, in his recent excellent work on the Practice of Medicine, has not omitted mention of this disease, and gives in a few sentences much valuable information. Finally, Habershon, in his work *On the Alimentary Canal*, has devoted a chapter to the cæcum and its diseases. Reports of cases, and observations upon them are quite numerous scattered throughout the medical periodicals of the last thirty years. The most interesting and important of them will be introduced when they may serve to determine a question.

The occurrence of an abscess in the right iliac region, communicating with the bowel, may, for our present purpose, be considered due to, 1,

ulceration and perforation of the cæcum; 2, ulceration and perforation of the appendix; and 3, inflammation and suppuration of the sub-cæcal connective tissue.

I. **ULCERATION AND PERFORATION OF THE CÆCUM** occurs under two conditions: *a*, the irritation of an extraneous body; *b*, perforating ulcer of the cæcum.

a. Ulceration of the cæcum produced by some extraneous substance is, probably, more frequent than is generally supposed. The anatomical position and structure of the cæcum favours the lodgment of foreign bodies. It has, it will be remembered, a sacculated arrangement, due to the fact that the longitudinal fibres are collected into three bundles, which are much shorter than the mucous membrane. This arrangement permits an extraordinary increase in size when the fecal matters accumulate, but in the state of ordinary distension these sacculi and folds of the mucous membrane may retain particles of undigested food, fruit-stones, intestinal concretions, etc. As the cæcum is bound down more or less closely by the sub-cæcal connective tissue, and by the peritoneum, the motion of this intestine is very limited, and hence foreign bodies lodged in the folds of the mucous membrane are less readily detached than in other parts of the intestinal tract. From similar causes, lodgment of extraneous bodies, followed by ulceration and abscess, may occur in the sigmoid flexure of the colon, an instance of which happened in my wards at St. John's Hospital, last winter. Volz, of Carlsruhe, according to Dr. Hanbury Smith,¹ thinks intestinal concretions, of which he describes three varieties, the "*soft*," the "*semi-hard*," and the "*stony*," play an important part in the production of the ulcerative inflammation. The first "resemble excrement in appearance and odour, and have a nucleus of hardened fecal matter;" the second "have a sausage form, with pointed ends, are of a grayish-brown colour, and consist of shining concrete layers, with a nucleus in the centre, which is not a foreign body;" and the third are "of a grayish-white or earthy colour, and a surface whence may be detached delicate scales, or else of a smooth, shining, yellowish white or brown surface, studded with calcareous projections." Most of these intestinal concretions consist of carbonate and phosphate of lime, united with inspissated mucus. Copland alludes to one consisting of cholesterine. In the museum of Guy's Hospital, says Habershon, there is a large calculus, the size of a hen's egg, which was removed from a sinus leading from the parietes of the abdomen to the cæcum. These intestinal concretions are much less apt to lodge in the cæcum than are such foreign bodies as cherry and grape-seeds, and various indigestible substances of a similar irritant character. In the appendix, however, any substance not acted on by the intestinal juices may lodge, especially if the cæcum be distended with feces.

¹ Western Lancet, 1848, vol. vii. p. 134 et seq.

The foreign body, whatever may be its nature, lodges in the folds of the mucous membrane in the posterior part of the cæcum—for the direction impressed upon the fecal matters in their passage through the ileo-cæcal valve is from before backward. Having obtained foothold, the body excites ulceration of the mucous membrane, perforation takes place, and some fecal matter with the foreign body escapes into the sub-cæcal connective tissue. Inflammation then occurs in this connective tissue (*cellulitis*), manifested by some constitutional disturbance, but especially by tumefaction in the right iliac and lumbar regions, by pain down the inner face of the thigh, by hectic, sweats, discharge of matter, &c.

It is to be observed that, in these cases, the first symptom is due to perforation followed quickly by acute inflammation of the sub-cæcal tissue. Peritonitis is not an accident of this condition of things, for the reason that the portion of the bowel perforated has no peritoneal covering. Symptoms are not observed—or, are very obscure—until the inflammatory process takes place in the sub-cæcal tissue, because, indeed, the ulceration is confined to the limited space occupied by the foreign body, and does not involve loss of function of the organ.

For particulars of two cases of this form of ulceration and perforation of the cæcum, I am indebted to my friend Dr. Geo. Fries, of this city, whose good fortune in meeting with strange and difficult cases is only equalled by his skill in the management of them.

CASE I. When this young man presented himself to Dr. Fries, the whole anterior wall of the abdomen appeared to be a mass of disease. Numerous sinuses extended downward into the iliac regions of both sides, on the dorsum of the penis, and into the scrotum. The discharge had the fecal odour, and was very offensive. The sinuses were freely laid open. Three grape seeds were subsequently discharged from an opening in the right groin. Complete recovery ensued.

CASE II. This was a female, a patient of Dr. Fries. A swelling had for some time existed in the right iliac region. It was at first mistaken by the physicians who examined it for enlarged ovary. Suppuration occurred, the abscess was opened by Dr. Fries, and a *Lima bean* was discharged. This patient also recovered promptly after the discharge of the extraneous body.

Dr. Gurdon Buck, of New York, in the course of some observations on deep-seated abscesses, made before the New York Pathological Society,¹ gave a case of abscess “produced by a foreign body which had made its way from the cæcum, and set up inflammation posteriorly in the fossa of that side. The foreign body afterwards presented itself in an opening in the groin which had previously been made for the evacuation of matter, and proved to be a pin which was extensively incrustated. That patient—a male—ultimately recovered.”

¹ New York Medical Journal, October, 1865.

I have collected other cases of the same character, but the history of them is not material to the present inquiry. Of thirty-two cases of fecal abscess, the origin of which was distinctly ascertained, in six the abscess was due to the presence of an extraneous body, producing ulceration and perforation of the cæcum.

b. The production of abscess by perforation of the intestinal coats by ulceration (cæcitis?) is a more common accident than the preceding. It is a form of disease not unfrequently met with in the interior portion of this continent.

In respect to severity of symptoms and gravity of results, perforation of the cæcum by ulceration may be divided into two classes: 1. Those in which the perforating ulcer is situated in the posterior part of the bowel; and, 2. Those in which the perforation involves the peritoneal covering. The symptoms of the second variety are not to be distinguished from those of ulceration and perforation of the *appendix vermiformis*. In a large majority of cases, the perforating ulcer selects the posterior part of the gut. Of fourteen cases, in two only did the ulcer involve that part of the bowel covered by the peritoneum.

The symptoms of perforating ulcer are these: Pain is felt in the right iliac region and tenderness to pressure exists. There are apt to be, also, more or less abdominal pain and uneasiness; disturbance of the bowels with dysenteric symptoms, and some impairment of the general health. These evidences of disease may continue for many weeks without attracting much attention, until a sudden increase of uneasiness in the right iliac region, and the development of a tumour in that locality, demand interference. The tumour develops itself downward to the outer half of Poupart's ligament, and upward and backward along the crest of the ilium to the posterior superior spinous process. Although I would not presume to deny the fact asserted by some writers that acute cæcitis may terminate by ulceration and perforation of the coats of the bowel, yet all my observations go to prove the existence of a characteristic form of disease, which I have ventured to denominate "the perforating ulcer of the cæcum." In the cases examined by me, the tubular glands of the cæcum, which are large and distinct, were the seat of ulcerative action, the intervening mucous membrane being comparatively healthy. The ulcer, when fairly established, is round, with smooth, even edges, slightly elevated above the surrounding tissue. It preserves these characters throughout. The distinctiveness and urgency of the symptoms will depend upon the number of ulcers in the cæcum; the progress of the case will be much influenced by the state of the vital powers; in a low and enfeebled state of the general organism the ulceration proceeds more rapidly. When perforation takes place, the sudden increase in pain is generally referred by the patient to a blow upon the part, or a strain, or some unusual position of the body; but these accidents only promote the giving way of the last portion of tissue

already in a state of slough. All of the attendant phenomena will be better exhibited by some illustrative cases.

CASE III. Mrs. M——, æt. 46, the mother of five children, after some months' of suffering from an intestinal disease, dysenteric in character, began to have pains of a very excruciating character in right hip. Soon after she observed a swelling in the right iliac region. This swelling was accompanied with pain down the thigh in the course of the crural nerve. She maintained the thigh flexed upon the pelvis and the trunk inclined forward and to the right. This position was assumed, obviously, to relax the abdominal muscles and prevent pressure upon the tumour, which was very sensitive to the touch. The swelling increased in size, pushing upward to the inferior border of the liver, and bulging outward over the crest of the ilium and extending backward to the posterior superior spinous process. She experienced hectic and profuse perspirations, and became very much exhausted, so that her life was despaired of. The abscess finally pointed just below and opposite the middle of the crest of the ilium. A quantity of offensive gas and matter escaped; but meanwhile several sudden and profuse discharges of pus took place from the rectum. She finally recovered completely.

CASE IV. Mrs. K——, æt. 25, Newport, Ky. She had suffered for nine months frequent attacks of diarrhœa, with abdominal pain and soreness, especially in the right iliac region. A swelling gradually developed itself in this situation. The pain became very acute, so that she could not bear the slightest manipulation of the tumour, although the abdomen in every other situation was soft and free from tenderness. As in the preceding case, much pain existed along the inner face of the thigh, and was acute in the knee. She carried her body much forward and to the right, and the thigh flexed upon the pelvis. She had, soon after the appearance of the tumour, daily paroxysms of fever and exhausting night-sweats, which were mistaken for a quotidian intermittent. When I saw her, in consultation, there was a firm, hard swelling in the right iliac region, not quite reaching to Poupart's ligament, extending above the crest of the ilium, which it overlapped, and reaching backward to the lumbar vertebræ. An obscure sense of fluctuation was perceived in the most prominent part of the swelling. Her catamenia were regular. She was much exhausted, had but little appetite, and suffered from occasional attacks of diarrhœa. After one of these attacks the tumour subsided very sensibly. Under the use of mineral acids and quinia, and chlorodyne to relieve the pain, she improved, and was at length able to go on a considerable journey to join her husband.

CASE V. (Dr. Fries.) A female. Symptoms same as in foregoing cases: a swelling in right iliac region extending above crest of ilium to lumbar region. Finally discharge of matter at posterior superior spinous process; discharge of fecal matter for nine months, when orifice closed and complete recovery ensued.

When the ulcer perforates that part of the intestine having a peritoneal covering, the symptoms and results are much graver than in the cases just detailed. When the perforation takes place, the symptoms of peritonitis declare themselves so suddenly and characteristically as to leave no room for doubting the nature of the accident. In one instance (Case VI.) which

has fallen under my observation, the symptoms of peritonitis were not so pronounced as I have described them. Generally, when the perforation takes place, we observe those provisions of nature to limit the ill effects. The peritonitis is circumscribed, adhesion takes place between the omentum and intestines in the neighbourhood, and the abdominal wall, and following the usual law, the pus seeks an outlet externally. These conservative efforts, unfortunately, usually fail. Sometimes, instead of the local, we have a general peritonitis, with all of its disastrous consequences, as in the following case :—

CASE VI. Was a female about eighteen years of age, who had suffered under some obscure abdominal trouble with diarrhoea. During the progress of the case, she was suddenly attacked with severe abdominal pain and tenderness, but no considerable depression of the vital powers. She died two weeks after this sudden increase in the gravity of her symptoms, but without giving satisfactory evidence of the serious lesions discovered after death. I found, on post-mortem examination, a round, smooth ulcer of the size of a silver dime, which had perforated the cæcum on its anterior part; general peritonitis existed, the intestines and pelvic organs being glued together so that they could not be separated without tearing the former, and the cavity contained forty ounces of very fetid sero-purulent fluid.

A very instructive case is reported by W. Sly, Esq., Assistant Surgeon Second Batt. 16th Regiment, in the *Statistical, Sanitary and Medical Reports of the British Army for 1859* (p. 290).

This was a soldier æt. 30, "of strumous diathesis and delicate aspect." "On the 29th of June, after making a hearty meal, he walked quickly over the curragh, and on stooping low, in order to pass under a fence, he suddenly felt intense pain in the right iliac region. * * * In a few days, when he was able to bear manipulation, I discovered a tumour as large as the closed fist between the ilium and umbilicus, which I diagnosed as pericæcal abscess. * * * On the 7th of July I opened an ischiatic abscess, which discharged freely up to the date of the man's death." At the autopsy were found "two ulcers in the cæcum, one of which communicated with a cavity formed by the adhesion of omentum to the parietes of the abdomen in front and behind. The pus which formerly filled this cavity must have escaped into the bowel through the enlarged ulcerated opening, for the abscess was nearly emptied."

Mr. Ferrall (*Dublin Journal*, 1839¹) has described a case similar to the last.

A young girl was admitted to the Meath Hospital with a tumour in the right iliac region about fourteen days after the first attack; suppuration of the tumour had then occurred; the bursting of the abscess was soon indicated by a copious discharge of purulent matter from the bowels; soon after this another tumour formed in the upper part of the thigh, separated from the former by a deep sulcus corresponding to Poupart's ligament. The latter opened and discharged pus and ultimately fecal

¹ American Journal of the Medical Sciences, vol. xxv. p. 188.

matter. Mr. Ferrall exhibited to the *Dublin Pathological Society* the parts, showing the mode of communication between the abscess and the opening in the groin.

II. ULCERATION AND PERFORATION OF THE APPENDIX.—In a collection of eighteen cases, unequivocally produced by extraneous bodies, I find that the appendix was the seat of ulceration and perforation in twelve cases. There have been very opposite opinions expressed on this point. Mr. Ferrall assumed that the cæcum was the original seat of ulceration in iliac abscess, and joined issue with Dr. Burne, who had attempted to establish that the appendix was usually first diseased, the discharge of pus taking place through a subsequent perforation of the cæcum. Dr. Burne also excepted to the doctrine of Dupuytren (*Leçons Orales*, &c.) and of Menière, who held that the disease was in the cæcum only. Dr. Burne's analysis includes twenty-one cases, of which eleven were simple inflammation of the cæcum. Excluding the latter as not pertinent to our present inquiry, we have a total of ten cases, of which "two were chronic disease of cæcum; six were instances of perforation of the appendix, five being fatal; one was perforation of the cæcum from within and recovered; one was inflammation of the appendix with peritonitis, and was fatal." Dr. Hanbury Smith also regards ulceration and perforation of the appendix as the principal source of abscess in the iliac fossa. Habershon (*op. cit.*, p. 169) remarks that "ulceration and perforation of the intestine are much more frequently found associated with disease of the appendix than with ulceration of the cæcum itself." He reiterates this opinion in his remarks on tumours of the abdomen in Volume XI. of *Guy's Hospital Reports*.

Ulceration and perforation of the appendix may be due to simple inflammation and abscess, of which I have met but a single instance in a large number of autopsical examinations, or to lodgment of intestinal concretions, or other extraneous bodies. Three-fourths of the cases are produced by the latter accident. By what cause soever produced, there will follow perforation of the appendix, a local or general peritonitis. The symptoms, always pronounced, will vary accordingly. Both classes of cases are very fatal, but the latter are more fatal than the former. When the matters escape, and even before, during the progress of the disease in the appendix, adhesions take place so as frequently to shut off the greater part of the cavity from the local inflammatory action. It is in these latter cases only that abscess makes its way outward through the iliac and femoral regions. The same phenomena, precisely, occur in the case of perforating ulcer of the cæcum involving the peritoneal coat. An interesting case behaving in this way, but which terminated fatally, is related by Habershon, in Volume XI. *Guy's Hospital Reports*, 1865, p. 192. "The disease originated in the appendix and set up inflammation in the adjoining

cellular tissue; suppuration and abscess followed," the abscess opening below Poupart's ligament.

III. INFLAMMATION AND SUPPURATION OF THE SUB-CÆCAL CONNECTIVE TISSUE.—M. Dupuytren entertained the belief that abscess in the right iliac fossa was frequently dependent upon inflammation of the iliac fascia. Copland repeats these observations of the *Leçons Orales* upon this subject. The older writers in general held this view. It was supposed either that an idiopathic inflammation occurred in the sub-cæcal tissue, or that inflammation of the cæcum was transmitted to this tissue by contiguity of structure; matter being formed, discharge of it took place either through an opening in the bowel or in the groin. Dr. Horner, then Demonstrator of Anatomy in the University of Pennsylvania, related in the *Philadelphia Journal of the Medical and Physical Sciences*, 1820, vol. i. p. 141, a case of lumbar abscess upon which he remarked as follows:—

"This case I believe to have been unusual, in regard to the communication established between the abscess, situated in the iliacus internus and psoas magnus muscle and the cavity of the colon, and it may, perhaps, prove serviceable, by calling in similar cases the attention of the practitioner to the cause of a series of symptoms which embarrassed exceedingly all the medical gentlemen who were consulted about it. It is also a good example of the species of lumbar abscess, which, in the language of Mr. Abernethy, proceeds from the phlegmonoid inflammation in the part. * * * * The case just recounted seems to me, from the primary symptoms, and from the alteration of structure in the parts affected, to have been one of phlegmonoid inflammation, and would have been cured by the treatment, had not the diseased action extended itself through the parietes of the colon," etc. etc.

That Dr. Horner misapprehended the facts which he had observed, is probable from an examination of some circumstances in the history of the case. "In consequence of some injury or strain received in the prosecution of his business, the patient felt a severe pain arise in the lumbar and iliac regions," &c. Compare this history with that of the case reported by Asst. Surgeon Sly (see *ante*) and the close analogy between them will appear evident. It is probable, indeed, in all of the cases, that disease of the cæcum or appendix was precedent to the formation of matter in the iliac fascia. Dr. Burne, who criticized in his paper the views of MM. Dupuytren, Menière, and others upon this point, takes, as we have shown, a somewhat too narrow view of the subject, in referring the origin of the formation of matter alone to ulceration and perforation of the appendix. Mr. Ferrall, on the other hand, was equally partial in his views in referring all iliac abscesses to disease of the cæcum. M. Dupuytren was, undoubtedly, in error in ascribing so much importance to inflammation and suppuration of the sub-cæcal connective tissue, which plays, we now know, a very secondary part in the phenomena of abscess of the right iliac fossa.

COURSE OF THE ABSCESS.—I have collected nineteen cases in which the precise point the abscess discharged itself was unequivocally stated. In ten of these the pus descended along the sheath of the psoas muscle, and

presented itself underneath Poupart's ligament (cases of Horner,¹ Ticknor,² Buck,³ Copland,⁴ Habershon,⁵ Ferrall, Howell,⁶ and those given in this paper); in three into the bowel; in three both into the bowel and externally; in one into both iliac regions (Dr. Fries' case); in one opening into the bowel and also into the iliac artery (Dr. Barlow's case);⁷ one into the lumbar region, posteriorly.

Dupuytren regarded the opening into the bowel as the safest termination of an iliac abscess, and the opening on the surface of the body as almost always fatal. The first opinion is probably correct; but the last is at variance with the facts herein presented. One-half of the cases in which the abscess opened externally terminated in recovery. I do not find a well authenticated case of recovery from ulceration and perforation of the appendix. Dr. Burne reports one case of recovery in six cases of perforation of the appendix, but he does not state the ground of his conclusion. It will be remembered that Dr. Burne does not believe in perforative ulceration of the cæcum, but considers that abscesses arising from perforation of the appendix frequently discharge themselves through the cæcum. It is obviously difficult to arrive at a correct conclusion on account of the impossibility of verifying the diagnosis in a successful case.

The pointing of the abscess is sometimes attended with phenomena well calculated to mislead. Instead of the "doughy" sensation of parts containing pus, the integument is distended with gas and is tympanitic. This condition of things existed in Dr. Buck's case, giving rise to the question, "whether the gut had not made its way to the surface." "This portion of the swelling was resonant, and on handling it, you could readily distinguish that it contained air." The very same remark could be correctly applied to the most prominent part of the swelling in Mrs. M——'s case, already detailed. A somewhat ludicrous description has been given me by a medical friend of this city, of his sensations of terror on opening what I presume to have been a similar form of abscess, when a quantity of gas escaping he supposed his lancet had punctured the intestine.

PROGNOSIS.—The conclusions arrived at after a survey of the whole ground may be summarily stated as follows:—

The prognosis is favourable if the abscess have been produced by a foreign body which has passed by ulceration through that part of the cæcum not covered by peritoneum.

The prognosis is favourable in one-half of the cases of perforation of posterior part of the cæcum by the perforating ulcer.

¹ Philadelphia Journal of the Medical and Physical Sciences, vol. i. p. 141.

² American Journal of the Medical Sciences, vol. xvi. p. 513.

³ New York Medical Journal, vol. ii. p. 38.

⁴ Medical Dictionary, vol. i. p. 332.

⁵ Diseases of the Alimentary Canal, chap. viii., Phila. edition.

⁶ Lancet, 1845, vol. i. p. 648.

⁷ Ibid., 1853, vol. i. p. 340.

The prognosis is more favourable when the sub-cæcal abscess discharges itself through the bowel.

The prognosis is unfavourable, if the perforation takes place through that part of the cæcum with a peritoneal covering, or through the appendix.

In thirty-one cases of perforation of the cæcum and appendix there were eleven recoveries, seventeen deaths from general peritonitis, one death from hemorrhage (abscess opened into iliac artery), two deaths from exhaustion.

According to Dupuytren, the prognosis is not, in general, unfavourable. Of sixteen cases of abscess in the right iliac fossa observed by him, one only died.

DIAGNOSIS.—This affection may appear to be sufficiently characteristic to prevent mistakes in diagnosis; nevertheless some very curious mistakes are on record. Dupuytren remarks that he has frequently witnessed gross errors of diagnosis, especially in confounding psoas abscess with abscess of the iliac fossa. Mr. Cæsar Hawkins, in a clinical lecture (*London Medical Gazette*, Sept. 29, 1832, in *American Journ. of the Med. Sciences*, vol. xi. p. 503), thus alludes to the difficulty in many of these cases in making a correct diagnosis: "In short, the causes of these abscesses may be so numerous, and their course so varied and extraordinary, as sometimes to render them very puzzling and complicated." He gives a case in which an abscess following caries of the sacrum opened into the bowel and also externally, in the right iliac region, and feces were discharged through the external wound. More recently, Mr. Coulson (*London Lancet*, vol. ii., 1856, p. 518) has also discoursed upon the difficulty of determining the origin of abscesses in the neighbourhood of the vertebrae.

M. Brichetau (*Archives Générales*, 1838) has related a case of abscess in the iliac fossa which was at first presumed to be neuralgia of the hip. In the same periodical a case is related in the practice of M. Berard, which had been long mistaken for coxalgia. This will not appear extraordinary when it is remembered that a severe pain in the hip may be one of the earliest and most pronounced symptoms as in the case of Mrs. M——.

It would not be profitable to occupy much space with a minute detail of the symptoms by which the form of abscess under consideration may be distinguished from other affections. It will suffice to enumerate the diseases with which it may be readily confounded: 1, psoas abscess; 2, abscess connected with caries of the pelvic bones; 3, pelvic cellulitis or pelvic abscess; 4, abscess in the abdominal wall; 5, disease of the hip-joint.

TREATMENT.—Excluding the heroic remedy, "general bleeding," from the category, we cannot improve much on the practice of Dupuytren: local and general bleeding; fomentations, poultices, baths, lavements, and laxative drinks. In my experience nature is very competent to manage the case. In perforation of the cæcum involving the peritoneum, or of the appendix, a fatal result may be anticipated, do what we will, unless adhesions localize the inflammation, when an abscess may form in the right iliac region—a

rare result, but the chances of which we must not diminish by too heroic treatment.

In a large number of cases, as we have seen, either a foreign body or a perforating ulcer opens the posterior part of the bowel, and the abscess forms in the sub-cæcal tissue. If left to itself, the abscess tends outward, and in a majority of cases recovery ensues. In addition to the simple measures of Dupuytren, we have to give the patient what is called "the supporting treatment." I think it not well to make haste to use the knife. On the other hand, Dr. Buck, who is high authority, says: "The proper treatment, which has been successful in my hands, is this: upon ascertaining the existence of the abscess, I, without waiting for fluctuation to establish itself, make an outlet for the matter below the outer half of Poupart's ligament, and parallel with it, first through the integument, exposing the fascia of the thigh. This fascia being divided, you pass under the ligament, and get behind the iliac fascia. The incision thus made is to be kept open by a plug of lint, renewed every twenty-four hours." This practice, I may be permitted to observe, is not always proper, since a discharge of the abscess through the opening in the bowel is the most favourable termination. Bursting of the abscess into the peritoneum is an accident not to be apprehended in these cases.

ART. IV.—*On the Inhalation of Atomized Medicated Liquids and its Value in the Treatment of Diseases of the Respiratory Organs.* By JOHN HART, M. D., Boston, Mass.

IN the spring of 1865 my attention was attracted by the reports of some cases of diseases of the respiratory organs which had been treated successfully by the new mode of inhaling atomized medicated liquids, and I therefore determined to investigate the subject carefully, and test its value by experience. As a suitable apparatus could not then be obtained, I constructed one myself. After having treated several patients with good results, I exhibited my apparatus at the meeting of the Suffolk District Medical Society, September 30, 1865, and presented the results of this treatment as obtained from the numerous reports of eminent German practitioners. Since then I have resorted to this treatment in a large number of cases with satisfactory results.

Inhalations were recommended in the treatment of diseases of the respiratory organs in the early periods of medical science. Aretæus, Galen, Plinius, Aëtius, Dioscorides, and the Arabians advocated inhalations of vapours and sea-air. Subsequently various gases and vapours, chlorine, iodine, tar, turpentine, etc., were recommended for inhalations; but the

efforts which have been made within the last few years to convey remedial agents to the air-passages have been more successful. Medicated liquids have been atomized or converted into such minute particles that they appear in the air like mist or spray, and in this form they are inhaled with the atmosphere.

Mineral waters were first atomized in 1849 by Dr. Auphan, by throwing a stream of water with great force against a wall, and the patients inhaled the minute particles which were thus formed and floated about in the atmosphere of the apartment. The first apparatus, which Flubé and Sales-Girons constructed, was for the purpose of filling a ward with atomized mineral water at Pierrefond, where fifteen patients inhaled at the same time. For the purpose of atomizing other medicated liquids, Sales-Girons had subsequently a portable apparatus constructed on the same principle as the one used at Pierrefond. To describe the numerous apparatus which have since been constructed would be unprofitable, and I will therefore confine myself to the description of those only which at present are mostly in use.

Sales-Girons' apparatus consists of a strong glass bottle, into the neck of which an air-pump is fastened. The air being condensed at the top of the liquid, the latter is forced through a narrow tube, which has a capillary opening at its free extremity, and is thrown through an aperture in a glass cylinder against a convex lens directly opposite, where it is divided into fine particles. The patient sits before the glass cylinder and inhales these particles, which appear in the form of a fine spray. Mathieu constructed an apparatus which he called *Nephogène*. It consists of a condenser, where the air is compressed to a certain degree; a valve is then opened, and the air passes through an elastic tube into a glass ball, which contains the medicated fluid, and with this it passes with such force through a minute opening that the stream of water is changed into a cloud of atomized liquid. These two apparatus were much in use until Bergson invented his *Hydroconion*, and Siegle his *Steam-Hydroconion*. These are based upon the principle that if two glass tubes with capillary openings at one of their extremities are connected in such a manner that the capillary extremities form a right angle, and that the capillary extremity of the tube which is to convey the medicated fluid is so arranged as to cover about half of the capillary opening of the other tube, and air or steam is forced through the latter, which has a horizontal position, a vacuum will be formed in the other, which has a vertical position, with its lower portion passing into the medicated liquid, the liquid will rise to the top, and there by the force of air or steam be divided into the most minute particles, forming a beautiful spray.

Tubes arranged as here described are generally called Bergson's tubes. Professor Wintrich modified them, dispensed with the connecting medium, turned the capillary extremity of the tube passing into the liquid to a right angle, and bent the tube conveying air or steam in a proper position to

the former. Thus the tubes could be made with a free extremity of several inches, be passed into the mouth or other cavity, and the spray be formed there. This modification has lately been adopted for local anæsthesia, by a member of our society, supposing it to be new. The size of the capillary openings and the proper adjustment of the tubes are of the greatest importance in constructing an apparatus. The size of the capillary openings influences the fineness of the spray and the rapidity with which it is formed; the rapidity is also influenced by the greater or less force of the condensed air or steam. Physicians who buy the tubes for their apparatus frequently complain that they either do not work at all, or that one set will atomize an ounce of fluid in five minutes, whilst with another it cannot be done in less than an hour. These uncertainties can be avoided by a careful selection of tubes or by the practitioner making them. This can readily be done by taking a glass tube of about an eighth of an inch diameter, heating this over an alcohol lamp or Bunsen's burner, drawing it out to a fine point, breaking this off at the proper place, and rubbing the point on fine sand-paper or stone until the opening has the desired size. Two such tubes may then be connected and kept in proper position by a wooden or silver clasp, or by a glass rod. In my own practice I use tubes with openings of different sizes. The exact size of the openings of these I am unable to give, but they vary to such an extent that the largest will atomize an ounce of fluid in five or eight minutes, producing a coarse spray, and the smallest in fifteen or twenty minutes, producing a very fine spray, using only a moderate pressure of steam in either. By raising the pressure of steam the spray will be produced more rapidly and thrown with greater force. It is necessary to be able to produce a coarse or fine spray, if we wish to treat successfully the diseases of the different portions of the air-passages.

A little copper boiler, about three inches in diameter and three inches high, with a tube in the top, will generally answer the purposes of a steam boiler. Into the top of the tube a rubber stopper is inserted, through which the glass tube which conveys the steam passes. By proper caution the rubber stopper will never be blown out by the pressure of the steam, but to make it perfectly secure a pin may be passed into the stopper through a small hole in the copper tube. If we wish to apply a cheap safety valve, another glass tube may be passed through the stopper. This tube is closed at its free extremity, and has an opening at the side which is covered by a small piece of rubber tube. By the pressure of steam the rubber will be raised, and the steam have a chance to escape. A stand for the boiler and glass which contains the medicated liquid can easily be made of sheet iron or tin. When the apparatus is to be used, about three ounces of hot water are put into the boiler, and by placing an alcohol lamp or gas burner under it sufficient steam will be made to keep the apparatus in operation.

On using my apparatus, I soon saw that it was important to protect the

face of the patient from the spray. I therefore had a glass funnel cut off, so as to leave an opening of three-quarters to one inch diameter, and attached it to a separate stand in such a manner that it could be turned about and also raised or lowered, or moved farther away from the formation of the spray. A tumbler or cup is placed below the funnel to receive the fluid which accumulates on its inner surface. An apparatus like the one described will cost but a trifle, and will answer every purpose as well as those which are more costly. I do not claim any originality or any peculiar advantages for my own apparatus, but the credit of having constructed the first apparatus, and having first brought the subject of inhaling atomized medicated liquids before the profession in Boston.

Do Atomized Liquids penetrate into the Air-passages?—Almost every new theory in science and every step for improvement meet with more or less opposition. Inhalations of atomized medicated liquids have not been exempt from the general rule, and the opponents who were willing to acknowledge the great acquisition which would be gained by the local treatment of diseases of the respiratory organs, denied the possibility of atomized liquids penetrating into the air-passages, and disbelieved the practical value claimed for them. But fortunately numerous experiments, and the success of this new treatment have proved the contrary. In proof of this we refer to a few remarkable facts. Demarquay made numerous experiments upon squirrels, and the inhaled liquids were detected in the air-passages and even in the parenchyma of the lungs. These experiments were repeated by Fieber in Germany with confirmatory results. Demarquay also experimented upon a nurse, who was obliged to breathe through a canula; she inhaled a solution of tannic acid whilst the tracheal opening was closed, and the presence of the acid was proved in the trachea by paper which had been moistened with a solution of chloride of iron and dried again.

I will only call attention to two more and very important cases, which alone ought to suffice to prove the penetration of atomized fluids into the air-passages. One, a case of consumption with severe hemorrhage, was under the care of Dr. Lewin. The hemorrhage was arrested by the inhalation of a solution of sesquichloride of iron. The patient died, and at the autopsy a large cavity was found in the upper lobe of the right lung. It contained shreds and fluid of a blackish colour and some dark-red coagula. The fluid and coagula were analyzed by Dr. Schultz and found to contain iron. The other was a case of Bright's disease under the care of Prof. Zdekauer, of St. Petersburg. The patient had a fearful attack of hemorrhage from the lungs, which was arrested by inhaling a solution of sesquichloride of iron. After two days the patient died. Dr. Holm examined the infiltrated lung-tissue, and detected a much larger quantity of iron than would naturally be present. Were it not that we have sufficient proofs of the penetration of atomized liquids from experiments made directly for that purpose, the clinical results which have been obtained from those inhalations entitle

them to be highly valued as a means for the local application of remedial agents to the air-passages, and for the more successful treatment of various diseases of the air-passages.

Temperature of the Spray.—If Bergson's apparatus be used, and the temperature of the room be 19° R., and that of the liquid also 19° R., the temperature of the spray at its point of formation will be 17° R., and at a distance of eight inches 16° R. The higher the temperature of the liquid is, the greater will be the change in the spray. Thus, if the temperature of the liquid be 60° R., the temperature of the spray will be 40° R. at the point of its formation, and it will fall to 17° R. at a distance of eight inches. If the liquid have a temperature of 5° R., the temperature of the spray at its point of formation will be from 9 to 10° R., and at a distance of eight inches about 14° R.

If Siegle's Steam-Hydroconion is used, the temperature of the spray will be much higher than that of the liquid. The nearer to the apparatus the patient inhales, the warmer will be the spray; and the farther, the cooler it will be.

There are but few remedies which are chemically changed by the atomizing process, and as their therapeutic action is not impaired by the change, it will not be necessary to mention them here.

Directions for administering Inhalations of Atomized Liquids.—The patient takes his seat directly in front of the apparatus, which is raised so high that the spray will be on a level with the centre of the open mouth. The patient sits erect, and rests his arms upon the table, or leans against the back of the chair. When the apparatus begins to work, the patient turns his head slightly backwards, and opens the mouth as wide as possible; the spray ought to pass directly through the centre of the open mouth, and the patient is directed to take long and regular inspirations, if the fluid is to penetrate into the minute passages; if it is to be applied to the pharynx, superficial inspirations will be sufficient. During the first sittings, the temperature of the spray may be higher than would be required, because it does not irritate the larynx and excite coughing, if it be warm; the patient's mouth may, therefore, be only four to six inches from the capillary openings, and the distance be gradually increased as circumstances may require. According to the susceptibility of the patient, the first sittings may only be from three to five minutes' duration, and afterwards be prolonged to ten, fifteen, and twenty minutes. Frequent periods of rest must be allowed during the inhalations, because if they are continued without interruption the inspirations become too frequent and superficial. Patients ought to inhale either before or a considerable time after meals, so that the lungs may expand freely. Mental and bodily exercise must be avoided, and if Bergson's apparatus be used, the patient must not keep it in operation himself.

The force and temperature of the spray are to be regulated according to

the pathological conditions of the parts. Special rules cannot be given in this regard, and experience will be a better guide. With little practice, patients soon learn to inhale properly and avoid coughing. Persons who are very nervous may inhale only the spray of water at the first sittings, and have the medicine added afterwards.

If patients are left to themselves, they will easily assume a wrong position and inhale carelessly. The apparatus may also become obstructed and not work properly. Physicians who do not devote themselves patiently to this new mode of treatment, and leave remedies for their patients to use themselves, and do not attend to them personally, will never realize the full benefits of this treatment.

After each inhalation, the patient may gargle with pure water, particularly if the remedies act injuriously upon the teeth, or if they are not intended to affect the mucous membrane of the mouth or pharynx. Inhalations must not be administered immediately after bodily or mental exercise, at least not until skin, pulse, and respiration have returned to their normal conditions. Neither is it advisable for patients to go out of doors immediately after an inhalation; they ought to remain in a comfortable room for a quarter of an hour afterwards. Other suggestions might be made, but they will readily occur to the mind of intelligent physicians.

Diseases which have been treated by Inhalations of Atomized Medicated Liquids and the Results which have been obtained.—Inhalations of atomized liquids have been used more extensively in chronic than in acute diseases, not because they are more applicable to the former, but because patients suffering from chronic diseases, particularly such as do not easily yield to remedies, try every variety of treatment from which relief may be expected.

Diseases of the pharynx will generally yield more readily to this treatment than those of the larynx, bronchi, and lungs, probably because the application is more direct. The length of time during which a certain disease has existed cannot serve as a guide for determining the time which will be required for its cure. I have treated patients for certain affections of the air-passages which had existed for five years, and which yielded immediately; whilst others, which had persisted for only two years or less, were refractory, and liable to relapse. Patients always expect miracles from any new treatment, and will easily be discouraged if a favourable result be not immediately obtained. Physicians themselves are also frequently too sanguine in their expectations, and lose confidence in the treatment which is not speedily successful. It must also be remembered, that diseases frequently seem to be aggravated by the first few inhalations, and yet it would be wrong to either abandon the treatment or change the remedies.

Diseases of the Nasal Passages.—To apply remedies to these passages I have constructed an apparatus for the purpose of conveying to them a condensed volume of spray. The face-protector terminates in a tube which

can be introduced into one of the passages; during the inhalation the other passages and the mouth are closed, and the whole amount of air is drawn through the tube. Half the quantity of medicated liquid is inhaled through one and the other half through the other passage. The medicine penetrates into the passages, and even to the pharynx, which is proved by the taste and the chemical reaction of the sputa. Nasal catarrh and coryza with copious and putrid secretion have been treated successfully by German practitioners and by myself. In connection with the inhalations, I also frequently use the nasal douche and injections.

Diseases of the Mouth and Pharynx.—In these diseases inhalations of atomized liquids have been used with the most brilliant success. This fact is sufficiently established by the experience of Sales-Girons, Demarquay, Trousseau, Fieber, Waldenburg, Siegle, Lewin, Schnitzler, Vogler, etc., as well as by my own. The affections which have been treated are pharyngitis catarrhalis, granulosa, ulcerosa, cronposa, syphilitica. Sometimes it is necessary to assist the local treatment by constitutional treatment, particularly in syphilitic affections. A more rapid and decided effect is sometimes produced by applying the medicated liquid in the form of a douche, *i. e.*, by throwing a large quantity of coarse spray with considerable force against the mucous membrane of the mouth or pharynx.

Diseases of the Larynx.—Catarrhal laryngitis is treated very successfully with inhalations of atomized liquids, particularly if it be of recent origin. In acute cases, accompanied by pain, difficulty of swallowing, heat and dryness, mucilaginous liquids combined with narcotics are indicated; whilst chronic cases generally demand astringents with or without narcotics.

Tubercular laryngitis, particularly if the lungs are implicated, is more resistant than other diseases. Cases which have existed but a short time sometimes yield to this treatment, but even in such cases relapses must be expected. Though the cases in which a perfect cure can be established are necessarily very rare, most of them can be improved and the distressing symptoms be ameliorated or entirely removed.

Syphilitic laryngitis has been treated successfully by Demarquay, Waldenburg, Schintzler, etc.

Croup and diphtheria have also been treated successfully by Barthez, Fieber, Trousseau, Lewin, Siegle, Biermer, and Schnitzler. Trousseau also mentions two cases of œdema of the glottis which were cured by inhalations of tannin; they were both very severe, and in one tracheotomy seemed to be unavoidable.

Whooping Cough.—Dr. Fieber reports a case where the disease had existed eight weeks without any change. He resorted to inhalations of mistura oleosa and extract of hyoscyamus, and after the seventh day the patient was so well that the treatment was discontinued. Wedeman, Gerhardt, and Siegle also report cases, which were treated with success.

New Formations.—These should only be treated by inhalations when it

is impossible or inadmissible to remove them by a surgical operation. Although it can only be expected that by this treatment those of small size can either be removed or arrested, attendant distressing symptoms can frequently be much relieved.

Hoarseness and Loss of Voice.—These are only symptoms of various affections of the larynx, and must be treated accordingly. They are frequently caused by catarrh, inflammation and ulceration, by new formations and also by paralysis of certain muscles. Alterations of the voice may also have a rheumatic origin or be caused by overtaxing the voice, which is frequently the case with preachers, public speakers, and singers. We must not overlook hysterical aphonia, which doubtless depends upon functional derangement of the nervous system.

Dr. Lewin reports a large number of cases which he treated successfully, and he also remarks that the cures were more rapid and the improvement more lasting than if cauterization had been used. I have treated several cases and have found that those depending upon catarrh, inflammation, and even ulceration would rapidly improve. Two cases, which were tubercular, but where the hoarseness had existed but a short time, were soon relieved; whilst another, where the voice had almost entirely been lost for two years, did not improve at all. The lungs were seriously affected in all three.

Diseases of the Bronchi.—Simple bronchial catarrh, not yet become inveterate, is almost invariably cured or improved. Acute bronchial catarrh, accompanied by pain, irritating cough, heat and dryness, and difficult expectoration is treated with the same remedies as acute catarrhal laryngitis; but it is necessary that the inhalations be more frequent and of longer duration, so that a larger quantity of fluid may be inhaled, since a large surface of mucous membrane is generally affected. The inspirations must also be slower and deeper, as it is of the greatest importance to have the medicated fluid penetrate to the minute ramifications of the bronchi. It is necessary also to be cautious in regard to the doses, particularly if astringents are used, which are indicated in chronic cases with profuse secretion. Such cases generally require patience and perseverance; nevertheless, the best results may be expected. Though it is but a few years since this treatment was introduced into Germany, yet numerous cases of long-standing affections of the bronchi are reported to have been treated successfully. I have treated a number of cases of chronic bronchitis, which had resisted the usual methods, and they were in a very short time entirely relieved and no relapses occurred.

Two symptoms, which frequently accompany chronic bronchitis, putrid expectorations and dyspnoea, deserve particular attention. Putrid expectorations can generally be arrested by inhalations of astringents or balsams, and the free exercise of the lungs during inhalations may justly be considered as producing a curative effect upon dyspnoea.

Bronchiectasis.—The existing organic disease cannot be cured, but all the symptoms which accompany it may be relieved. The excessive secretion and cough may be diminished, the putrid odour of the sputa removed, and the dyspnœa much reduced. In some cases it is even possible that the vesicles of a portion of an affected lung may regain some of their former elasticity, and become permeable to air.

In a case which had persisted for several years, and during the last six months the patient had suffered much from profuse secretion, intense cough, and dyspnœa, so that most of the time she could only rest and sleep in a sitting position, was relieved under my treatment. During the first inhalations the expectoration was profuse, but this, as well as the dyspnœa and cough, rapidly decreased, and after a month's treatment the patient was discharged. Four months after discontinuing treatment she still felt perfectly well.

Asthma.—The treatment of this disease varies according to its character. Asthma which depends upon other affections needs different treatment than that which is purely nervous. Inhalations of atomized medicated liquids have been used with great success in either cases. Several patients under my care have been benefited, and one, who had suffered from asthma for several years, and who had had frequent and long attacks, was entirely relieved upon six inhalations, and had no relapse during the five succeeding months, when she removed to another part of the country.

Emphysema.—I cannot speak from experience in regard to this disease, but will give Dr. Wedeman's opinion. He says: "Inhalations of atomized liquids have such a decided influence in bronchiectasis, emphysema, and other asthmatic affections, that they will always be resorted to as soon as their beneficial effects are sufficiently known. In all our cases (at Gerhard's Clinic), dyspnœa, the most distressing symptom, was removed, the pains in the chest relieved, cough and expectoration diminished, and much relief procured for the patient."

Phthisis.—This disease being of great importance, I intend to make it the subject of a separate paper, and only wish to say here that incipient phthisis can frequently be arrested, and the distressing symptoms of the advanced stages, such as cough, dyspnœa, etc., be much relieved.

Hæmoptysis.—If inhalations of atomized medicated liquids were of no other value than to convey hæmostatics directly to the bleeding air-passages, they would deserve to be highly esteemed by physicians and the community. Not only a dangerous symptom can thus be relieved, but patients are also spared the greatest anxiety and fear of immediate death; and hope for recovery, which nature so lavishly bestows upon consumptives, is rekindled in their bosoms. The numerous favourable reports, which have been published, are from such high authority that no doubt can be entertained in regard to their truthfulness. The results of several cases, which occurred in my own practice, fully confirm the value of each inhalation.

In conclusion, I will give a list of the most important remedies which may be used for inhalations. Any remedy which is soluble can be atomized, but I will mention only those which have been used with benefit either by foreign practitioners or by myself. Exact doses cannot be given, as they vary according to circumstances. Each dose is to be mixed with an ounce of water, and a certain quantity of such a solution is used for an inhalation :—

Tincture of opium, gtt. ii-j-x.

Acetate of morphia, gr. $\frac{1}{32}$ — $\frac{1}{16}$.

Extract of hyoscyamus, gr. $\frac{1}{4}$ —jss.

Extract of conium, gr. ss—ij.

Solution of sesquichloride of iron, gtt. j—x.

Tannic acid, gr. ij—vij.

Alum, gr. ij—viij.

Nitrate of silver, gr. ss—x.

Chloride of sodium, gr. j—viij.

Fowler's solution, gtt. j—xx.

Corrosive sublimate, gr. $\frac{1}{16}$ — $\frac{1}{4}$.

Various infusions may also be used with advantage in the boiler by which the medicated liquids are combined with medicated steam.

ART. V.—*Hypodermic Injections in the Treatment of Disease.*

By R. B. MAURY, M.D., Port Gibson, Miss.

A REVIEW of this subject in the *American Journal of the Medical Sciences* for April, has suggested the present article. It relates chiefly to the hypodermic use of quinia in malarial fevers, and may be of interest to the profession, as I am not aware that any publication has been made of its use in these diseases by American physicians.

My experiments were made in December, 1864, and January, 1865, while I was a surgeon in the "Confederate Army," in charge of General Hospital, Greenville, Ala., and formed the subject of a report to the Surgeon-General at Richmond. A retained copy of the tabulated statement of cases, which accompanied the report, was lost, so that I am necessarily confined to a statement of general results, and will merely quote from the report such parts as seem desirable.

This report embraces the history of twenty-five cases of malarial fevers, of which six were bilious remittent, five were quotidian intermittent, thirteen were tertian intermittent, and one a case of double tertian intermittent. The instrument used was the ordinary Wood's syringe for hypodermic injections, carefully graduated and found to carry thirty minims.

The seat of its introduction in the treatment of these cases, was usually the cellular tissue of the arm, about the insertion of the deltoid; sometimes it was introduced into the forearm. The preparation used was a perfectly clear solution of the sulph. of quinia in water with a sufficient quantity of dilute sulphuric acid: sixty minims of the solution contained eight grains of quinia. In cold weather the solution required to be well warmed before injecting it, because at moderately low temperatures it crystallizes rapidly and obstructs the syringe: it is then also painful to the patient.

In most of the cases, six grains was the entire quantity of quinia used during an intermission or remission: in the severer cases eight grains was the quantity used. Cinchonism was fully produced in from forty to sixty minutes.

The cases reported were from the troops on duty at Spanish Fort and the other defences of Mobile; they had all suffered more or less severely from malarial disease during the previous summer and fall; therefore, as it would have been necessary to repeat the administration of quinia, if given by the mouth after the paroxysms were broken; so in this mode of treatment, it was generally repeated twice by injection, to prevent a return of the paroxysm.

On two occasions, it will be seen that the chill occurred, in spite of the remedy, at its usual hour, or at some irregular hour on the same day, as it often does after the ordinary mode of administration. In the intermittent cases, no patient was injected until at least one chill had occurred after his admission to hospital; in the cases of bilious remittent, no quinia was used at all until the third or fourth day of the disease.

It is thought that the hypodermic may be preferable to the ordinary mode of administration under the following circumstances:—

1st. Where the economy of quinia becomes an object of great importance: this method requiring about one-third the quantity necessary if given by the mouth.

2d. In cases of fever, in which, from excessively irritable stomach, it is difficult to use remedies in the ordinary way.

3d. In the congestive forms of fever where absorption by the stomach is slow; or, in cases where there is not sufficient time to get the patient under the influence of quinia, given in the ordinary way, before the expected hour of return of a congestive paroxysm, life might be saved by introducing it through the cellular tissue.

The occasional occurrence of abscess is the only objection noticed to the hypodermic method: this occurred in two instances out of the twenty-five cases reported, and was attributed to a repetition of the injection in the same place; subsequently, when the injection was repeated, it was put into the forearm."

It may be observed from the above report that so far as the constitutional effects of the medicine are concerned, I claimed no more for it than

is accomplished in the administration of quinia by the mouth, and I am not inclined to believe, with Dr. Chasseaud, of Smyrna, that relapses will be less frequent after this than after other modes of treatment.

In 1858, during my term of service as House Physician to Bellevue Hospital, New York, the use of morphia, hypodermically, was introduced by Dr. Geo. T. Elliot, Visiting Physician, in the treatment of sciatica; since then I have used the syringe in a variety of cases, and often beneficially.

Very recently I have had under my treatment a most aggravated case of neuralgia, of five months' standing, which has resisted all the constitutional and local treatments employed, and from which there was no relief except by the administration of large doses of morphia; this was followed by so great and long-continued nausea, that the patient hesitated between enduring the pain and suffering the after-effects of the remedy. The pain was referred to the course of the sciatic nerve and its branches, and to all parts of the right lower extremity supplied by the branches of the lumbar plexus of nerves. The right half of the scrotum supplied by the scrotal filament of the musculo-cutaneous branch of this plexus was swollen and painful, and my patient was so great a sufferer that he would willingly have consented to amputation at the hip-joint had such a mode of relief been proposed. Between the 7th and the 27th of March he received thirty-five injections of Magendie's solution of sulphate of morphia—usually one grain to the injection. The result was uniformly a period of from twelve to twenty hours of absolute comfort and freedom from pain. The remedy seemed to exhaust itself in relieving the pain, and did not produce the usual sleep of opium. During the day he rarely slept; at night his sleep was natural. Neither nausea nor constipation followed this mode of using morphia, and though he had for a long time been accustomed to its effects when taken by the mouth, he did not suspect that he was using anything of the kind until he had received about twenty injections. I may add that no abscess or other unpleasant result was observed in this case.

ART. VI.—*Statistics of Height and Weight.* By S. HENRY DICKSON, M. D., Prof. Practice of Medicine in Jefferson Medical College, Philad.

I OFFER to the readers of the *Journal* the following tables on a subject certainly of some interest to the physiologist as well as to the public economist. If they prove nothing absolutely, they afford reasonable grounds for the belief that the dogma of Buffon as to the inferiority of animals in our New World from the nature of causes geographically and topographically impressive, and the opinion of Knox that degeneracy must inevitably result from our indefinite hybridism are untenable. They show that the

new race which is growing out of this almost unlimited intermixture exhibits thus far no deterioration, but will bear a comparison with all other races of the Old World in every point of physical development. They tend to convince us that the principles of selection and elective affinity may be confidently trusted to, to preserve the better orders of the human animal and to eliminate the inferior grades as fast as they are likely to arise from promiscuous and uncongenial "miscegenation." Of the moral or intellectual results we are not prepared yet to speak; except that they have been found always closely if not indissolubly connected with physical form, in its symmetry, beauty, and vigour. It is possible that some few exceptions may be pointed out, as in the Patagonians and some of the islanders of the Southern Seas; but these may be accounted for, when all the facts are known, by the efficient force of causes not yet appreciated.

The first of these tables contains the height and weight of 286 young men belonging to the last winter's class of Jefferson College in this city. The whole number of the class was 425. No selection was made; the tabulation was restricted merely by the passive difficulties which always present themselves in the way of similar efforts—the *vis inertie*—the carelessness, and want of interest which prevail. Thus I failed to obtain any statement from the Tennesseans, 13 in number; the North Carolinians, 8; and the Minnesotians from the far West, 3; all of these tall, sturdy young fellows.

I have set down the lineage as they gave it. All of them knew what blood filled their veins chiefly; many were aware of a greatly mixed origin. I have placed the adjectives in the order of frequency in which they were tabulated. It will be seen that the English is the principal stock by far, occurring everywhere. Others prevail locally:—

Whole number.	Nativity.	Number tabulated.	Average age.	Average height.	Average weight.	Lineage.
			Years.	Ft. In.	Lbs.	
205	Pennsylvania	133	24½	5 8½	147	German, Irish, Scotch, English, French, Welsh, Swiss.
35	Kentucky	34	25	5 11	163½	Irish, English, Scotch, French, German.
18	Ohio	16	25½	5 8½	144½	English, Irish, Scotch, German, French.
16	Illinois	11	26	5 9	148½	English, Scotch, Irish, German, French.
10	Mississippi	10	26½	5 10½	156	Scotch, English, Irish, French, German.
12	Delaware.	12	23½	5 8½	146	English, Irish, Scotch, French, Welsh, German, Swede.
11	Indiana	9	24½	5 10	154½	English, German, Scotch, Irish.
12	New England	9	24½	5 9	148½	English, Scotch
10	British Provinces	9	22½	5 10	145	Scotch, English, Irish.
14	Michigan, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas: North-western States	9	25	5 10	156½	English, Scotch, Irish, German, French.
13	New Jersey	7	23	5 8	146½	English, German.
13	Virginia	9	23	5 9½	145	English, Scotch, Irish, Welsh.
4	Texas	4	24½	5 10½	163½	French, English, Scotch, Irish.
4	South Carolina	3	22½	5 10½	158	Scotch, English, Dutch, Irish.
2	Arkansas	2	26	5 8½	132	English.
5	Maryland	1	22½	5 11½	145½	Scotch, Irish.
2	Alabama	1	22½	5 9½	135½	English.
8	New York	7	31½	5 8	147½	English, Irish, Scotch.

¹ Aged.² Measured.³ Weighed.

Of the whole number tabulated the average age is 24 years; height, 5 feet $9\frac{1}{4}$ inches; weight, 147 lbs. The Kentuckians are the tallest men: their average is 5 feet 11 inches: they give the tallest man, 6.6.

Nineteen of the 34 measure 6 feet and upwards, 1 in $1\frac{1}{2}$ —more than half the number! They are also the heaviest: one of them weighs 220 lbs., and 3 are of 200 lbs. and upwards, 1 in $10\frac{1}{4}$. Texas stands next in average height, $5.10\frac{3}{4}$; the average weight is just the same as Kentucky, $163\frac{1}{4}$. Of 6 feet and upwards: Kentucky 19 in 34; Mississippi 4 in 10; Delaware 3 in 12; British Provinces 2 in 9; New England 2 in 9; Arkansas 1 in 2; Virginia 2 in 9; Iowa 1 in 2; Missouri 1 in 3; Texas 1 in 4; Indiana 1 in 9; Illinois 1 in 11; Pennsylvania 7 in 133. Whole number of 6 feet and above, 45 = 1 in $6\frac{1}{2}$ very nearly.

In September, 1857, I published some similar tables in the *Charleston Medical Journal*, which I reproduce here, briefly and in part, for the sake of comparison and wider inquiry:—

No. 2. In the class of the South Carolina Medical College of the year 1847, 183 in number, there were 12 young men who measured 6 feet and upwards, and 15 between 5.10 inches and 6 feet. The tallest was 6 feet 4 inches in height: there was 1 of 6.3: there were 4 of 6 feet 2 inches: there were 2 of 6 feet 1 inch, and 4 of 6 feet.

No. 3. The height, weight, and lineage of the 95 candidates for graduation in the same Medical College, in 1857, are next recorded. Twenty-five of these measured 6 feet and upwards—one in $3\frac{3}{4}$ nearly. Twenty-three stood from 5.10 to 6 feet in height, and 22 from 5.8 to 5.10. The tallest was 6.3. The heaviest of them weighed 182 lbs. The average age was $22\frac{1}{2}$ years: average height, 5.9: average weight, 145 lbs. Their lineage was Scotch, English, Irish, French, Welsh, German, Dutch, Swiss. Few claimed to be of pure or unmixed blood; few could define the proportions of their hybridism. Almost all were British by descent: of these 16 were partly Welsh. There were 17 with French blood in their veins; besides 5 German, 4 Dutch, and 2 Swiss in part.

No. 4. I obtained from the "Citadel Academy," a State institution where the youth of South Carolina received an education partly military, the following statistics: Of the whole number, 89, the average age is 18 years 6 months, the average height 5 feet 7 inches, the average weight 134 lbs. Six of the number measured 6 feet and upwards = 1 in 15. Two of them were 6 feet 2 inches in height. Fifty-five claimed to be of English blood, wholly or partly; 36 Scotch; 32 French; 24 Irish; 6 Welsh; 8 German; 2 Dutch (Hollander); 1 Swiss.

The subject having attracted attention, I obtained some additional tables, which will be found in full in the same *Journal* for July, 1858. I make a few extracts here:—

No. 5. Of the class in attendance at the South Carolina Medical College, 1857-'58—the whole number being 216—I have the list of 141 names—

taken promiscuously, as their indifference permitted—in no sense picked or selected. Of these the average age is between 21 and 22 years; average height, 5 feet 9 inches; average weight, 145 lbs. Thirty-four are in height 6 feet and upwards = 1 in $4\frac{1}{2}$. Ninety-two are of English blood, pure or mixed; 55 Irish; 54 Scotch; 26 French; 11 Dutch; 8 German; 8 Welsh; Swiss, 2; Hebrew, 2; Italian, Russian, Indian (Catawba), 1 each. The tallest man, 6.5, is of Scotch descent: and weighs 188 lbs.

No. 6. Prof. J. C. Nott, of the University of Louisiana, favours me with the following items; forty-two names—a fraction of the medical class—are given: Of these the average age is $24\frac{1}{3}$ years; average height, $5.10\frac{1}{2}$; average weight, $145\frac{1}{4}$. Twelve of them are in height 6 feet and upwards = 1 in $3\frac{1}{2}$. The tallest two are 6.3 inches. Twenty-five are, in part or wholly, English; 14 Irish; 9 Scotch; 4 French; 3 Welsh; 1 Dutch.

No. 7. Prof. Eve, of the University of Nashville, furnishes me with the statistics of the medical graduates of the Tennessee University of that year, 108 in number: Of these the average age is $24\frac{1}{2}$ years; average height, 5.10; average weight, $150\frac{1}{6}$ lbs. There were 36 of 6 feet and upwards in height = 1 in 3. The tallest was 6.5 inches—a Tennessean, æt. 26, who weighed 209 lbs. Their lineage was English, 31; Irish, 31; Scotch, 28; Welsh, 12; German, 4; French, 4; Indian, 2; Portuguese, 1. With a single exception they were all born in the Southern and Western States.

No. 8. My friend Dr. S. Weir Mitchell collected the particulars of height, weight, &c. of a portion of the class of Jefferson Medical College of the same year: Of 75, taken as circumstances permitted, not selected, the average age was 22 years; average height, 5 feet 9 inches; average weight, 145. Thirteen measured 6 feet and upwards = 1 in $5\frac{1}{3}$. The tallest was 6 feet $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The lineage is given as English, 35; Scotch, 25; Irish, 15; German, 13; French, 4; Welsh, 4; Dutch, 2.

No. 9. For the next very interesting table I am indebted to Mr. Hart, one of the class of the Virginia Military Institute, at Lexington, 150 in number, all of that State it is presumed: Their average age is 18 years 5 months; average height, 5 feet 9 inches; average weight, $141\frac{1}{4}$. Thirty-four measured 6 feet and upwards = 1 in $4\frac{1}{3}$. The tallest was 6 feet 4 inches, 21 years old, of Scotch-Irish descent. Their lineage is set down as English, 100; Irish, 52; Scotch, 47; French, 19; German, 5; Welsh, 4; Swiss, 3; Indian, 1.

No. 10. Among the most valuable of the tables I have been able to procure is the following from the Military Academy of the United States, at West Point. I am indebted for it to the courtesy of then Lieut.—now Major-General Schofield, U. S. Army: The whole number of cadets was that year (1857-'58) 211. Of these the average age is $20\frac{1}{17}$ years; average height, 5 feet 9 inches; average weight, $143\frac{1}{16}$ lbs. Twenty-four measured 6 feet and upwards = 1 in $8\frac{3}{4}$. The tallest is 6 feet $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches high; age, 20 years; weight, 160; from Missouri, of mixed blood, Swiss,

Swedish, and French. One hundred and seventy-nine are of the third generation Americans born.

No. 11. From Prof. A. B. Palmer, of the Michigan University, Ann Arbor, I have the stature and weight of a portion of the medical class of that year, 53 in number: Of these the average age is $24\frac{1}{2}$ years; the average height, 5 feet $8\frac{3}{4}$ inches; average weight, $150\frac{4}{5}$ lbs. Eight measure 6 feet and upwards = 1 in $6\frac{5}{8}$. Tallest, 6.2. Lineage: English ancestry is claimed by 44; Scotch, 14; Irish, 12; German, 8; Welsh, 6; Dutch, 5; French, 3; Spanish, 1; Swiss, 1.

No. 12. I have been fortunate enough to obtain some female statistics, not often to be met with in the books. Rev. Dr. Buist, of the Laurens Academy, reports, under his tuition, 83 young girls between the ages of 5 and 18 years: one young lady has reached 21; including her there are 52 whose average age is 14 years and 1 month—the youngest being 12. Of these the average height is 5 feet; average weight, $100\frac{1}{5}$ lbs. Under 12 years there are 31 whose average age is 9 years; average height, 4 feet $1\frac{1}{10}$ inches, average weight, 58 lbs. All were born in the United States; almost all in South Carolina. The three tallest measure equally 5 feet 6 inches; the heaviest weighs 180 lbs.

No. 13. Rev. Dr. Curtis, of the Limestone Springs Academy, tabulates the same number—83. Of these there are 75 at and above 12 years to 18, the average being 14 years 11 months; average height, 5 feet $1\frac{3}{8}$ inches. The eldest two, each aged 18 years, measure 5 feet 7 inches, and 5 feet, and weigh 146 and 115. The tallest is 5 feet $8\frac{1}{4}$ inches; the heaviest weighs 182 lbs. Of the whole number, 56 are 5 feet and upwards in height. Seven of the younger average $10\frac{3}{4}$ years, 4 feet $4\frac{5}{7}$ inches, and $68\frac{3}{7}$ lbs. As to the lineage, all are native born, English and Irish blood predominating; then Scotch, Welsh, Italian, German, West Indian.

Compare the two last tables with the following: Cowell gives the stature of female children in Manchester and Stockdale, England—factory girls and others—at 10 years, whether or not in factories, about 3 feet $9\frac{1}{4}$ inches.

At Laurens, South Carolina, U. S., Buist, of average age 9 years, records the average height of 31 at 4 feet $1\frac{1}{10}$ inches.

At Limestone Springs, South Carolina, U. S., Curtis, of average age $10\frac{3}{4}$ years, records the average height of 7 at 4 feet $4\frac{5}{7}$ inches.

Cowell sets down girls not in factories, at 14 years, 4 feet 5 inches; factory girls about $\frac{1}{3}$ of an inch less.

Harrison gives the average height of girls, from 14 to 15 years of age, as 4 feet 9 inches at Preston, Lancashire; and from 17 to 18 years of age, as 5 feet.

Quetelet, of girls of the wealthy class in Belgium, at 14 years of age, as about $4.4\frac{8}{10}$ inches; and at 21 years of age, as about 4.8 inches.

Buist gives of 52, whose age is at the average 14 years 1 month, 5 feet as the average height.

Curtis gives of 75, whose age is at the average 14 years 11 months, 5 feet $1\frac{2}{3}$ inches as the average height.

Horner gives measurement of young girls from 5 to 12 years, averaging 9 years, as 4 feet 1 inch, which is but a little below Buist's, stated above, and does not differ much from Curtis', allowing for more than a year.

In Vilvorde Prison, 69 women averaged 4 feet $8\frac{3}{4}$ inches—a stature somewhat under that of South Carolina girls of 15 years.

In Europe there is an observed difference between the upper and lower classes, as regards both height and weight. An obvious reason presents itself in the better hygienic condition of the former; with greater wealth there will be better feeding, clothing, &c., and hence fuller development in every way. Besides this there must be some influence in the lineage; the superior elements in the mingled races, in the "struggle for existence" so long maintained, as well as by force of "elective affinity," acquire pre-dominance.

We cannot affirm the existence, we have not observed it among our people, of any such difference between the rich and the poor; and it will be long before anything of the kind can be established here.

Villermé & Quetelet declare that the country shows a general inferiority of stature compared with the population of cities and towns. If true on the Continent, this will not surely apply to Great Britain. Nor is it so with us. Our town's-folk, it would seem, are smaller than our country people. Our tallest and heaviest men, it will be remembered, are found in our agricultural districts.

Let us extend our comparative view. We have accumulated much information since the time of Haller, who places the average stature of man at 5 feet 5 or six inches.

Quetelet rates it, at 25 years of age, at 65.27 inches—5 feet $5\frac{27}{100}$ inches.

Danson	"	"	" 66.30	"	5	"	$6\frac{30}{100}$	"
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Boyd	"	"	" 67.00	"	5	"	7	"
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Liharzik	"	"	" 68.00	"	5	"	8	"
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These last tables are from Aitken, and vary much, probably in relevance with the races or nations estimated. Quetelet, rating it the lowest, gives the measurements taken among Belgians and Frenchmen. Liharzik probably has gathered his in the tribes of Middle Europe—Poles, Slaves, Hungarians, &c. Danson and Boyd, it is to be presumed, offer us, chiefly at any rate, British statistics.

We cannot lay any great stress on the small number of statements authentically made as to the stature of remote and savage races. The extremes are found on the one hand in the Doko and Bosjesman, estimated not to exceed 4 feet 6 inches; and on the other in the Patagonians, who show, as we learn from good authority, a common height of above 6 feet: the tallest seen by the Spanish officers, in 1785, measured 7 feet $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch.

Scherzer in "the Voyage of the Novara," gives 5 feet $6\frac{3}{4}$ inches as the

average height of 147 Maories, their average weight being 141 lbs. The average height of 617 Europeans, chiefly British soldiers, measured at the same time, was 5 feet $7\frac{1}{4}$ inches. The tallest Maorie measured $6.5\frac{1}{2}$ inches. Livingston, the African traveller, mentions his meeting with several natives of 6 feet height and upwards.

Whewell gives some measurements taken at Cambridge University, as averaging 5 feet $9\frac{6}{10}$ inches. Forbes, objecting to the above as "of picked men of 18 to 24 years of age," computes an average of 5 feet $8\frac{9}{16}$ inches. More particularly, he makes the Belgian average $5.8\frac{2}{10}$; the Scotch, $5.9\frac{3}{10}$; the Irish, $5.10\frac{1}{5}$. Against these we place from our table No. 1: Kentucky, 5 feet 11 inches; Texas and Mississippi, 5 feet $10\frac{1}{2}$; and from table No. 6, Louisiana, $5.10\frac{1}{5}$ —equal to the highest, the Irish; and from No. 7, the Tennesseans, 5 feet 10 inches.

Danson offers us an extensive and interesting series of observations upon 4,800 criminals in Great Britain, separating the averages according to age, one hundred at each age noted:—

At 19 years of age the height was $5.4\frac{3\frac{4}{10}}{10}$; the weight, $130\frac{1}{10}$ lbs; the tallest measured 5 feet 11 inches. Compare our Lexington table, No. 9, at 18 years 5 months: The height was 5.9; the weight, $141\frac{1}{4}$ lbs.; the tallest stood 6 feet 4 inches.

From Danson again: At 21 years the height was $5.5\frac{5\frac{7}{10}}{10}$; the tallest measured 5 feet $11\frac{1}{4}$ inches. Our West Point table, No. 10, at $20\frac{1}{17}$ years: The average height was 5.9; the tallest cadet stood 6 feet $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

The loftiest stature ever attained in modern times was probably that of one of the Dukes of Brunswick, 8 feet 6; equalled, it is said, also, by one of Frederick's giant grenadiers.

In the "*Book of the Clans*," of Scotland, it is mentioned that "William, Earl of Sutherland, in 1759, raised among the Kennedys of Clare Ulric, a fencible regiment 1100 strong in nine days; the men were so tall that there could be formed no light company; nearly 300 of them were upwards of 5 feet 11 inches in height."

The remarkable size of the members of the Virginia conventions held at different times is thus alluded to by Grigsby: "Washington, the Lewises, the Randolphs, Mason, Pendleton, the Cabells, the Carringtons, Henry, Bland, the Lees, Jefferson, the Campbells, Blair, Tazewell, were, nearly all, full six feet high, and some of them above that mark. Marshall and Monroe were tall. Innis was, probably, the largest man in the Union. Madison was, probably, the only small man among them." These certainly were not, in the physical sense of the term, "picked men;" selected, as they were, for elevation of character and intelligence. Add to them the late illustrious Gen. Scott, who, like Saul, overtopped almost all other men by the head and shoulders.

Perhaps the estimate which would show our North American development in the most favourable light is the proportion of those who rise above

a certain standard. We have nowhere in our European tables such estimate except incidentally. Quetelet tells us that at 19 years of age 3 individuals only were more than 18 decimetres—above 5.10 inches; at 25 years, 6 such; and at 30 years, 13 such, in 900 persons measured.

Now, in our American tables, No. 1 shows 45 in 286 who measure 6 feet and upwards. Of 34 Kentuckians, 19—more than half; Delawarians, 3 in 12; and Mississippians, 4 in 10. We shall find of all ages, from 18 to 30 a much larger percentage of persons above 6 feet in height than Quetelet gives of two inches less. If we add all his numbers together we have but 22 of five feet 10 inches height in 900 measured—little more than 2 per cent., against 206 of 6 feet and upwards in 1,066 measured—very nearly 20 per cent.

In the Army Report of the United States we find

30 in 100 set down from Georgia 6 feet high and above it.

24 in 100 “ N. Carolina “ “

18 in 100 “ Kentucky, Indiana, and Tennessee 6 feet high

and above it, and so on through decreasing proportions until we reach New England, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and New York, 6, 5, and lowest 4.

Hybridity is not, we must infer from the above statistics, necessarily injurious to the human race, as some have ventured to pronounce it. The results depend upon adaptation, affinity. Within certain limits it seems to be congenial and highly favourable to physical development. Beyond these limits it is uncongenial, discordant, and must prove injurious. Of the former we have instances in these United States, in France, and in Great Britain. It is scarcely possible to appreciate the indefinite hybridism of the British people, from whom we derive the largest proportion of our blood, which we go on to mingle still more diffusively. In a paper not long since read to the Ethnological Society of London, by Dr. MacIntosh, he describes and figures the varieties of race clearly distinguishable in Great Britain as 5 in number: 1. Gaelic; 2. Cymbrian; 3. Julian; 4. Saxon; 5. Scandinavian. Dr. Knox expressed his conviction that an element not mentioned by the writer of the essay was very prevalent in Cornwall, Devon, and the North of Ireland—the Phœnician, namely. Mr. John Crawford, F. R. S., President of the Society, believed the great mass of the English people to be British properly, not Teutonic. During the discussion Archdeacon Williams mentioned that, from the breadth of their shoulders, 1,000 Welshmen (emphatically British), drilling at Cardigan, took up as much ground as 1,200 middle country men.

Of miscegenation, amalgamation, uncongenial hybridism, degenerate mixture, the world is full of examples. Scherzer tells us of the wretchedness of the race of Portuguese and Negro in Madeira; the same may be said of mulattoes everywhere; the poor half-extinct half-breeds, of whites and Indians along our frontier, and the promiscuous Mexican and South American peoples.

ART. VII.—*An Operation for the Correction of Inversion of the Ciliary Margin of the Eyelids, connected with Shortening of the Palpebral Fissure: by the Implantation of Integument behind the Outer Portion of the Upper Lid.* By DAVID PRINCE, M. D., of Jacksonville, Ill. (With two wood-cuts.)

THE generally recognized difficulties in the way of removing obstinate entropion and relieving the parts from the condition of trichiasis, in which the ciliæ keep up an inflammation and opacity of the cornea by their contact in the process of winking, are a sufficient apology for calling the attention of the profession to a new expedient.

It is appropriate to make brief references to the pathological condition and to the surgical operations hitherto performed.

Long-continued inflammation of the mucous membrane of the lids results in a change in the character of the membrane and of the subjacent areolar tissue, by the deposit or infiltration of material of imperfect organization. The suppleness of the parts is diminished while their thickness is increased. The deposit of the same character which takes place after acute inflammation, is rapidly and completely removed, so as to leave no appreciable remaining alteration; but a long continuance of the low grade of chronic inflammation, secures an alteration in all the tissues of the membrane; so as in some degree to give it the character of a cicatrix. The same is observed in other parts of the body, and a familiar example is that of the hard and tense integument in the seat of a long-continued eczematous inflammation upon the arms or legs, which has disappeared as a pathological process, but has left a permanent pathological condition.

The contraction which follows long-continued inflammation of the mucous surfaces of the lids results in a diminution, to some extent, of the depth of the fold of conjunctiva as it passes from the globe to the lids, and a slight tendency to incurvation of the cartilage, but the chief cause of the ultimate deformity seems to consist in the sliding of the integument with its Meibomian outlets and ciliary glands upon the ciliary margin of the cartilage, so as to bring a greater or less number of the eyelashes in contact with the globe.

This tendency is aggravated by a contraction at the outer commissure, causing an apparent shortening of the lids by the approach of the external canthus toward the cornea. As the tendo oculi obliges the internal canthus to be always a fixed point, any diminution in the area of the mucous membrane in the transverse direction must manifest itself entirely by the encroachment of the external canthus.

There is, besides, a tendency of the fissure between the lids to shorten at the outer angle, by the same process which, in inflammation of the integument between the fingers, causes an encroachment of the integument upon

the fissure, without a direct adhesion of opposite surfaces. The diminution of the area of mucous membrane tends to draw the integument in between the outer extremities of the cartilages, and to slide the ciliary margin inward. This is probably the reason why in the worst cases trichiasis is usually most troublesome in the outer half of the lid. The existence of this condition more often in the upper than in the lower lid is doubtless owing to the more frequent occurrence of prolonged inflammation in the upper lid than in the lower.

The lids, and especially the upper lid, are thus made not only to irritate the cornea by the rough contact of the ciliæ, but to grasp the globe with too much pressure.

If the cartilages contracted equally with their mucous investment, the tendency to inversion would be very slight.

That the hypertrophy of the orbicular muscle, resulting from excessive exercise in shielding the sensitive eye from light, can have no influence in producing this deformity, is sufficiently evident, from the absence of this tendency in artisans who acquire unnatural power in this muscle in holding-magnifying glasses.

Operative Expedients.—1. The ordinary domestic proceeding of extracting the eyelashes, one by one, is the only mode of relief, short of an operation, and this is exceedingly temporary, requiring to be repeated as often as the ciliæ are reproduced.

2. The difficult process of dissecting out the matrices of the ciliæ, one by one, must usually fail from its incompleteness, and if successful, the angular margin of the lid must still glide roughly over the cornea and adjoining conjunctiva.

3. The unskilful operation of amputating the whole border of the lid, including the ciliary matrices, no one would wish to have the credit of having performed.

4. The operation of Celsus, consisting in the removal of an elliptical portion of integument, some distance from the ciliæ, will often suffice, when there is no encroachment of the external angle.

This proceeding is rendered much more effectual by the modification recommended by Desmarres, which consists in removing the strip of integument very near to the ciliæ.

It is difficult to see what circumstances would invite the adoption of the method known as Jansen's, which consists in removing a vertical ellipse instead of a horizontal.

5. Crampton's method modified by Guthrie. A vertical incision is made through the entire thickness of the upper lid, just external to the punctum, and a similar incision, parallel with this, is made about the same distance from the external angle. The flap between the two incisions is then turned up and the upper extremities of the vertical incisions are united by a transverse incision through the mucous membrane only. The flap is then allowed to fall back, and a transverse fold of skin is removed, as in

the operation of Celsus, after which the adjoining edges of integument, along the vertical incisions, are united by sutures, so as to secure a permanent position of the upper portion of the central integument a little higher than that of the undisturbed lateral portions. Then by narrow adhesive strips, applied vertically from the margin of the lid to a sufficient height above the eyebrow, the ciliary margin is attempted to be permanently secured in a position approaching that which is normal. A disagreeable deformity remains, and it must fail in the worst cases, in which there is considerable encroachment of the external angle.

6. Saunder's method consists in taking out a narrow portion of the inferior border of the cartilage, which of course must permanently diminish the width of the lid, and unless a considerable portion of skin is removed at the same time according to Desmarres' modification of Celsus's method, it would seem that the inversion must be made worse.

7. Jaesch proposed, in 1816, a plan, afterward modified by Arlt, which consists in taking out a strip of integument two or three lines in width, two lines above the ciliary margin. The integument below this, including the bed in which the eyelashes rest, and of course including the whole ciliary border, is then dissected up from the cartilage, taking great care not to injure the extremities of this isthmus through which the vascular supply must necessarily come. This portion of integument, including the eyelashes, is then made to glide up, and occupy the place left vacant by the removal of the strip of integument.

Dr. E. Percival Wright, Surgeon in Charge of the Ophthalmic Dispensary at Dr. Stephens's Hospital, Dublin, has advocated this operation in the *Dublin Quarterly Journal* for February, 1865, giving wood-cut illustrations and full explanations.

An objection to this operation is that it does not relieve the shortening of the palpebral opening, upon which the affection, in marked cases, in part depends. The long isthmus of integument may slough, and did in part slough in one of the cases operated upon by Dr. Wright, but the destruction ceased before irrecoverable damage had been done. The outlets of the Meibomian glands are severed in the operation, and must remain permanently obstructed.

8. The next proceeding is one which has been very often resorted to without having assumed any man's name, and consists in making a free horizontal incision through the external angle, to restore the length of the palpebral opening, and in drawing out and retaining in the fissure a portion of the conjunctiva.

This operation is founded in a recognition of the indication, but unfortunately, it always fails in the cases which most demand it. The reason why it fails, is evident from what has been said of the pathological condition. There is no mucous membrane to spare. The deformity itself arises from a deficiency and degeneration of it, so that, if any of it is drawn

out at the angle, the granulation and cicatrization of the surface from which it had been taken, is sure to draw it again within the lids; the yielding skin easily gliding in obedience to the superior force of the mucous contraction.

9. A better plan than this, for the purpose simply of increasing the length of the palpebral fissure, is to pass a silver wire at the place where it is intended the commissure shall be, and leave it there until the track of the wire has become lined with skin, as in preparing the lobules of the ears of girls for wearing ear-pendants, and then to cut through all that intervenes between this orifice and the joining of the lids.

10. *The implantation of integument behind the outer portion of the upper lids.*—In order to meet the indication growing out of the encroachment of the outer canthus, to diminish the closeness with which the upper lid glides upon the eye, and to render the operation of Celsus effectual, the following method is adopted.

From a point in a line passing horizontally through the external canthus, and about the 16th of an inch from the natural position of the canthus in relation to the cartilage, carry an incision downward and inward from one-third to one-half the length of the lower lid, and parallel with its ciliary margin. Make another incision, beginning at a point in the same horizontal line, about one-fifth of an inch further out, cutting downward and inward, and meeting the other incision at its lower extremity.

If the incisions are made by a narrow pointed bistoury, piercing the skin and cutting from within outward, it is best in making the second incision not to bring the point of the bistoury out in the lower end of the first incision, lest the skin should slide over the edge of the knife, by which the flap might be rendered too short. The integument, between the incisions superficial to the orbicularis, is then dissected up as a triangular flap, beginning at the apex below. The flap is then turned up, and its apex is transfixed with a needle attached to a silver wire having also a needle upon the other end. This affords a convenient means of holding up the flap. Care should be taken here, as in all cases where it is expected to escape suppuration, to avoid contusion of the flap by the pinch of forceps. It is better not to use forceps at all in this operation, but to lift the point with a tenaculum, and as soon as sufficient integument is raised, to transfix the flap with the needle, which affords an adequate handle to it.

Then, under the base of the elevated flap, an incision is carried in the horizontal line through the canthus, deep through the fibres of the orbicularis muscle to the upper end of the outer incision. The mucous membrane is then freely incised behind the outer portion of the upper lid, so as to permit the easy elevation and eversion of the lid.

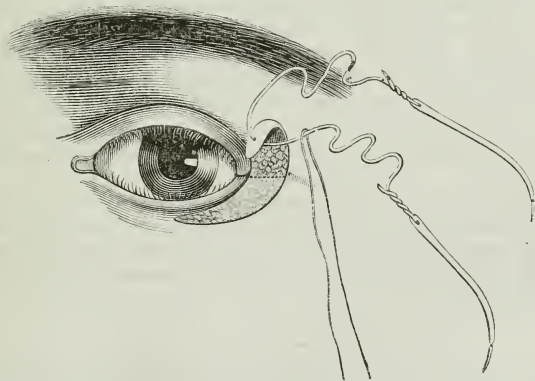
The flap is then doubled upon itself, and drawn under and behind the outer portion of the upper lid, being drawn into its new position by the wire suture previously introduced through the flap. To this end the

points of the needles are introduced behind the outer portion of the upper lid, and brought out through the integument beneath the brow; the entrance of the needles being about a quarter of an inch apart, care should be taken to introduce both needles into the interval made by the internal dissection, that is, between the lines of the undisturbed portions of mucous membrane. The object of this caution is to secure the contact of the areolar surface of the flap with areolar tissue behind the lid, in order to make union possible. The inverted integument, thus comes to occupy the position and to perform the function of mucous membrane. The wire is twisted over a compress for the protection of the skin from ulceration, and it is left in five days or longer.

For the extraction of the silver suture, it is convenient to have put a thread into the loop before drawing it in. After cutting the free ends of the loop upon the skin below the brow, a gentle pull upon the thread, which hangs out at the canthus, readily extracts the loop in the direction contrary to that in which it had been introduced. The two lines bounding the excavation, from which the flap had been taken, are made to meet by a little dissection under the margins, and retained by interrupted sutures.

The nearness to the margin of the lower lid to be observed in making the first incision depends upon the amount of eversion to be secured to the lower lid. If there is no inversion of the lower lid, the flap should be taken from a space more distant, and *vice versa*.

Fig. 1.



The accompanying illustrations will render the account more intelligible.

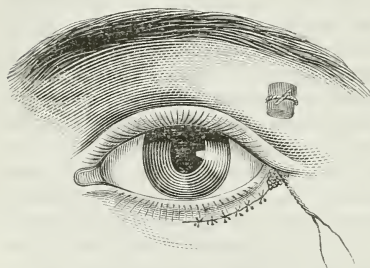
Fig. 1 represents the external commissure contracted by chronic inflammation.

The space from which the flap has been dissected is seen below the lower lid, and the flap itself is seen turned up with a wire passing through. A

dotted line at the base of the raised flap shows the place in which a deep incision is to be made to extend the external canthus.

Fig. 2 represents the operation completed. The flap has disappeared

Fig. 2.



behind the upper lid, and the retaining suture passes out under the brow, and is twisted over a compress. The ligature for retraction of the suture is seen hanging out at the external angle. The integument adjoining the space from which the flap has been dissected has been brought together, and is retained by delicate interrupted sutures of silk.

In cases of entropion, which require this operation, it will generally be necessary to perform that of Celsus (fourth in the enumeration of methods), or Desmarres' modification of it, which is an improvement, in order more perfectly to evert the ciliary margin.

The only deformity which is left by this operation is a somewhat unnatural fulness above the external commissure, which, if desired, can be remedied by a subsequent operation, removing a portion of the integument which had constituted the base of the flap.

It has been suggested that modifications of this method may be resorted to for symblepharon, in order to supply to some extent the deficiency of mucous membrane, by implanting the delicate skin of the lids. This is very distensible, so that though a flap at the time of its implantation may seem very small, it is capable, after its adhesion in its new location, of great enlargement.

To remove any deformity which may arise from the increased thickness, where the flap turns in at either the inner or the outer canthus, the pedicle through which the vascular supply was at first maintained may be cut away after the circulation is established through the adhesions in the new relations.

ART. VIII.—*Spotted Fever as observed in Breckenridge County, Kentucky.* By J. W. MOORMAN, M. D., of Hardinsburg, Ky.

BRECKENRIDGE County is hilly and broken, with a soil composed of a mixture of clay and sand; the water is generally "limestone," containing, besides carbonate of lime, various other saline substances. The county is well drained.

Hardinsburg, where the fever first made its appearance, is an inland town of about two hundred and fifty inhabitants, situated on a range of hills somewhat above the level of the surrounding country. There are no swampy lands or pools of stagnant water near the town. Malarious diseases were unknown until within the past three years, and the town has almost always been noted for its healthfulness.

About the first of March, 1866, after an exceedingly damp winter, the spotted fever made its appearance. For some days previously to its appearance a raw east wind had prevailed, and it was observed during the epidemic that new cases always occurred during the prevalence of easterly winds. Without presuming that there is any relation between the two as regards cause and effect, this is mentioned merely incidentally as a matter of fact. Diseases of an intermittent character had been prevailing to an unusual extent during the winter months, and the first cases seemed to partake of their nature.

The symptoms varied; usually, however, there was a distinct rigor, coldness of surface, and absence of pulse at the extremities; pain in one or more of the extremities of a violent character; wild, and at times uncontrollable delirium supervened, with jactitation, startings, and incoherent cries; tonic spasm of the muscles of the neck drawing the head back, and great tenderness in cervical region of the spine. After several hours reaction took place, pulse became full and strong, though rarely exceeding normal frequency; bowels constipated, though easily moved by purgatives. Diarrhœa was rarely observed. There was in most cases intolerance of light, and in some, intolerance of sound; the conjunctivæ injected, and the whole surface of the body acutely sensitive, so much so that the least touch would cause the patient to cry out with pain. Vomiting was observed in some cases, though generally towards the close of the disease. The tongue, at first clean, moist or enlarged, and covered with a white slime, soon became coated with a black dry crust; sordes formed on the teeth; the urine scanty and high coloured and retained in some cases; respiration irregular and laborious. Early in the disease, in some cases, the first symptoms pointing to a grave form of disease are the appearance on the face, thorax and extremities of petechial spots varying in size and number; in some cases there are but a few spots and these rather obscure, at others, the whole surface was covered. In a few cases this eruption was absent until after death, and in one or two was not observed at all. Should the patient survive the fifth day, the disease assumes a low typhoid form, though there is no regular continued febrile phenomena. Paroxysms of pain of a neuralgic character were present, appearing in different parts of the body in quick succession; the extremities become contracted. Dilatation of pupils and blindness was observed in one case. Paralysis of optic nerve was present in a minority of cases. Relapses were common, and the greatest care was necessary to present them.

Death took place in the earlier cases from asphyxia ; in the more protracted ones from asthenia. Duration varied from a few hours to months ; the most malignant cases survived but a few hours, and generally those who survived the first five days lived thirty or forty days or even longer.

No age or sex was exempt, though chiefly boys between the age of five and fifteen were attacked. The three cases that recovered were all females. A negro woman aged sixty was attacked, and died on the tenth day. Of the fifteen cases in this town, eight died within the first five days, and three recovered. One case survived fifty-two days and died. Of the recoveries, one recovered in a few days, the other two lingered for three months.

But little is known of the cause of this terrible scourge. The beginning of the epidemic and its being confined to the town and vicinity, would naturally lead us to look for some local causes. The only one discoverable was that the drains of most of the cellars in the town being obstructed the water remained stagnant under the dwellings ; this may have been one of the causes. It was preceded and followed by very intractable cases of intermittent fever ; the prodromes of the two were so very nearly alike as to lead one to suspect a malarious origin, but quinia exercised no influence whatever over the spotted fever.

Whatever may be the local origin of the disease, the cause of the morbid phenomena must be the presence of a specific poison in the blood arising as does the poison of typhus, and differing only in the mode of propagation. The disease itself has been regarded by many as a malignant form of typhus, but the cases which came under my observation were of a different character, and though they presented many of the distinctive features of typhus differed from it in many respects. It is essentially an inflammation of the posterior and basilar portion of the brain and spinal cord and their meninges. On a *post-mortem* in one case, made seventy-two hours after death, which took place on the thirty-fifth day, we found the dura mater dry and adherent to the calvarium at different points. Beneath the arachnoid membrane the greater portion of the surface of the posterior portion of the brain was covered with a deposit of lymph, and dots of pus were found along the line of the vessels. On attempting to remove the brain, about three pints of turbid serum escaped. The brain was softened in circumscribed patches ; the medulla oblongata and pons Varolii were in a state of softening.

The spinal cord was only examined in the cervical portion, and was covered with a deposit of greenish-looking lymph.

The right side of the heart was filled with dark grumous blood, two or three shreds of fibrin in the left ventricle. Stomach and bowels healthy ; kidneys normal ; spleen rather enlarged. Gall-bladder distended to its utmost ; the *ductus communis choledochus* in a state of inflammation and impervious. Whole surface of liver of a dark greenish colour, from the exudation of the colouring matter of the contents of the gall-bladder. Substance of liver healthy. Lungs healthy.

The various plans of treatment laid down in works on the practice of medicine were tried without a very favourable result. Bloodletting and the general antiphlogistic treatment were tried, but abandoned. Opium and stimulants were a little more successful. Opium, in the cold stage, I consider one of our best remedies; large doses are well borne, and may be given at short intervals; I have given one-fourth of a grain of morphia every two hours for twenty-four to a boy twelve years old with good results. It should be given for the effect, and without regard to quantity. Quinia was used in several cases, but without benefit. Iodide of potassa was used at first, but abandoned. Stimulating applications to spine are useful during the cold stage. I used equal portions of aqua ammonia and tincture of capsicum rubbed over the whole length of the spine.

Permanganate of potash was beneficial, given in doses of from one-eighth to one-fourth of a grain frequently repeated. During the stage of excitement arterial sedatives were used, and of these the best is tincture of aconite root in large doses; veratrum viride is a valuable remedy of this class. In the chronic cases, muriate of ammonia and permanganate of potash are the medicines upon which I place most reliance. Bleeding is hurtful in most cases. To relieve the violent neuralgic pains in different parts of the body liniments containing chloroform and aconite, dry cupping, and friction with mustard and vinegar have usually been efficient. Intercurrent affections were treated on general principles, taking care always to sustain the powers of life by a sufficiency of liquid nutriment given in small quantities at short intervals, and when there was much debility alcoholic stimulants were used in quantities proportioned to the wants of the patient.

Under the most judicious plans of treatment the majority of cases proved fatal, and often the results of the same treatment in different cases were very different.

ART. IX.—*On the Changes of Type of Diseases.* By R. E. HAUGHTON, M. D., of Richmond, Ind.

CHANGE is written on all things temporal. If we look back but a few years, we shall find that very remarkable changes have taken place in the history of disease and its treatment—that the forms of disease which were called sthenic, attended as they were by a high grade of arterial excitement, are now superseded by the asthenic forms, in which all the symptoms are modified by a strong tendency to general debility from the very commencement of disease. By the sthenic condition is understood the inflammatory reaction or excitement, attended by a burning skin, injected eyes, intense headache, flushed face, wild delirium, and throbbing pulse; in which conditions the physicians of former days used the lancet freely till relief was obtained. This condition has been replaced by the asthenic, which has

manifested itself more fully since the advent of cholera in this country—1832, 1853. In this asthenic type of disease, debility of the heart's action appears from the first, and often requires active stimulation to support the patient, conjoined with nutrients. This is no delusion. Why is this remarkable change, and do such changes present themselves to us in our visits to the bedside? The history of medicine in the past fifty years affords ample evidence that medical opinion and practice have passed through radical changes, and that the treatment of disease, as we see it to-day, is vastly different from what it was at the former period.

Contrary to this view, however, Dr. John Hughes Bennett, of Edinburgh, in a work entitled "Clinical Lectures on the Principles and Practice of Medicine," declares that the diminished employment of blood-letting and other antiphlogistic remedies of late years does not arise from a change in the type of disease; but that the present advanced state of pathology and diagnosis has proved the former treatment to be erroneous; and he therefore concludes that inflammation is the *same now* that it was in former years. That antiphlogistic treatment is not used to the same extent, or is hardly used at all in the forms of disease of to-day, is not controverted; and that the indications we find most generally do not demand its use, is quite as well established. That medical men of to-day treat fevers and inflammations by agencies which they had never thought to use thirty and forty years ago, and are still the successful physicians they were, is not to be doubted, and it seems to me that were we to deplete the diseases of this day as was done formerly, we should lose many more of our patients; proving so far that depletion could not be borne now as it was then. To sustain the proposition of a change in the types of disease it is only necessary to examine the history of disease in our country during the various cycles of the last half century.

In looking back as far as 1807, and from that time to 1820, we find an epidemic of typhus fever prevailing, often complicated by pneumonia, which Dr. Wood says was erroneously called pneumonia typhoides, as it was a complication of epidemic typhus fever. The treatment, both in fevers and inflammations was at the time of the irruption of the typhous epidemics decidedly antiphlogistic; yet when a change occurred in the type of the disease as it did in 1812-13, the consequences of such treatment were fatal. In Philadelphia the celebrated Dr. Parrish, a young man, at that time, saw these unfortunate results of treatment, and treated the epidemic by active stimulation and support, and with the result of saving nearly all his cases. "So fatal was the treatment by copious bleeding that professional as well as popular opinion received a set against it." (Dr. Wood.)

Here at once was a decided change in treatment, corresponding to the type of disease which had most evidently changed from the more sthenic and prevailing types to one most decidedly asthenic, and which modified all

the then prevailing forms of disease. The history of the various typhous epidemics shows that typhoid and not typhus fever has been the prevailing fever of the New England States, and though not confined to such geographical limits, that fever was not known in the Western States. The malarious types of fever were alone known in the early settlement of the country, except only isolated cases of typhoid fever occurring in persons who had come from the East. For twenty years back, epidemics of typhoid fever have prevailed over large districts in the West with considerable severity, but a diminishing mortality. When I commenced practice, in 1850, the first epidemic of typhoid fever was prevailing in a certain locality in Indiana, and since that time I have seen three epidemics of the same disease. Malarious fevers also prevail to a certain extent every year; bilious fever being regarded the common type of fever in the autumn. As time has passed on, bilious fever has become rare in the same region, and intermittent fever as well as remittent, when they occur, are influenced by some depressing agency, which sometimes converts a truly periodical fever into a continued form. An opinion consequently prevails that typhoid fever has a tendency to replace intermittents and remittents, as these diseases are growing more unfrequent, and typhoid fever is now in many places in the West the predominant fever. Here we have a blending of types presented to us, beginning as malarial and ending in typhoid; to such blendings of types Dr. Woodward has given the name of typho-malarial, which exactly expresses what we observe in the history of such cases. Dr. Austin Flint, now of New York city, says:—

“That typhoid fever has to a great extent superseded the remittent form, and in a brief enumeration of the distinctive traits of remittent, typhus, and typhoid, published by us in this journal [*Buffalo Med.*], we mentioned this as a sentiment generally entertained by the profession in this region.” He says further: “We think there cannot be a doubt that a striking change has taken place within a few years past, and that typhoid fever from having been, to say the least, of unfrequent occurrence, has become frequent, and is becoming more so, remittents diminishing in frequency after the same ratio.”

These views are corroborated by some conclusions to which M. Boudin has arrived more recently. He says “there exists an antagonism between typhoid fever on the one hand and intermittent fever and phthisis on the other.” In the ten years which are past, and in which we have been presented with an ever-varying succession of disease, the typhous element seems to have predominated, and to control both the inflammatory and febrile types of disease, complicated, as these last frequently are, by some local inflammation, in all of which prostration is the common attendant. Since the advent of epidemic cholera in 1832, up to the present time, we have had conditions in disease which forbid the treatment so commonly resorted to prior to that period. Before 1832 the antiphlogistic treatment was practised; but soon afterwards cathartics were found to produce great disturbance where formerly they were used with benefit; and even to this day they are not

nearlly so much needed, nor even indicated, except those of the very mildest kinds. Intestinal mucous irritation is set up as the result of such practice, and prostration soon manifests itself. Blood-letting is abandoned, except by men who are averse to improvement, and who shut their eyes to the results of a more enlightened experience, based upon the changes in the types of disease. Another proof of the changes in the types of disease is afforded by some of our epidemics during the last five years. We have had, since 1860, an epidemic of diphtheria, and to some extent of erysipelas, also cerebro-spinal meningitis or cerebro-spinal fever, which we have found exhibiting evidences of prostration ; and the last disease I have seen begin as cerebro-spinal in all its manifestations, and terminate in well-marked typhoid fever ; the spinal and inflammatory symptoms subsiding, and the patient recovering slowly, as from typhoid fever. There was the same redness of tongue, the tender and tympanitic abdomen, the diarrrhœa and rose-coloured spots of typhoid fever, not those of spotted fever so-called. Dr. Pierce, of Mechanicsburg, Ohio, in a paper published in the *Lancet and Observer*, in speaking of an epidemic of typhus, typhoid, and cerebro-spinal fever occurring in his community, discusses the community of their origin and identity of character. I have no doubt of the truth of his observations, as I know very well in this region also that cerebro-spinal fever frequently merges into a genuine typhoid fever, and I believe that there is a community of origin, cause and effect, bearing their true relations in these three forms of disease, capable of being converted from one into the other, or, in other words, convertible forms of disease. It is true that with us we do not see the genuine typhus, as described by British writers ; but it is believed that cerebro-spinal fever is a modification of the genuine typhus, and we have typhous manifestations which are known to belong to the group of typhous diseases. Dr. Kersey, writing on the same subject, says, "of cases he had seen, reproducing, in almost every feature, the mental impression made a quarter of a century ago by watching the progress of a few cases of typhus or ship fever." These are not sthenic but asthenic diseases, and require a very different treatment from what was used when disease presented high arterial excitement. According to Dr. Hughes Bennett, who maintains that inflammation is always the same, the changes presented when disease is left to run its course undisturbed cannot be explained, for cases then recovered under the treatment which if applied now would prove certainly fatal in a large majority of cases. This is accepted as a fact, and I am disposed to think that there is another element not sufficiently taken into account. The force of the circulation has been carefully estimated in sthenic and asthenic diseases. But, if inflammation is always the same, why do we find now such complete prostration attendant, if the causes, conditions, and elements which enter into it under all circumstances are precisely the same. In the sthenic forms, when bleeding and purging were freely practised, such rapid and overwhelming

debility did not occur as do now, when we have asthenic forms of disease. The reason for such differences is, I think, to be found in the influence which the nervous system exerts upon the type of the disease and its force. All diseases, except traumatic ones and those produced by poisons, have their first lesion in the nervous system. Lesion of enervation, as Dr. Southwood Smith wrote, so I regard the first lesion as that of the nervous system, and as the agency, or poison, or whatever it may be, which produces disease, may exert more energy or power in one case, so we may have the ever-varying conditions of sthenic or asthenic impressed by the vital forces as they are influenced by a more or less violent and depressing cause. Lesion of circulation, lesion of nutrition and secretion next in their relations are disturbed, and there occurs just what we are witnessing as the epidemics come and depart. The testimony of morbid anatomy is adduced by Prof. Stokes, who says :—

“ Having had full opportunity of seeing and examining the recent examples of diseased structure, amounting to nearly 3,000 specimens, the products of the various hospitals of this city (Dublin), and this result is remarkable that the specimens of acute disease have had a very different character from that commonly met with in Dublin, between 1820 and 1830. As a general rule, these specimens all showed appearances indicative of a less degree, of pathologic energy.”

This is sufficiently full to indicate changes in the vital conditions which influence the type of disease. Disease is but a condition of tissues, a departure from their physiological state, and there is some rule which acts, not only to develop but to control, that tissue in its departure from its normal standard. Now either the vital endowments of the tissues are changed, or there would be no change in the tissues examined after death, if the varied influences which operate to produce and change disease were the same as observed under the sthenic types. But these vital endowments are changed, and the pathologic changes are not the same. In asthenic inflammations, the effusions were often copious and hemorrhagic; the inflamed surface of the tissue highly reddened; while now in pneumonia, as I saw in a recent case, the lung was of a purple or livid colour, *not red*, the effused lymph a grayish pasty mass, forming weak adhesions to adjacent surfaces; in other places, owing to the feeble energy of the inflammation, the effused products were in a pulpy or semi-fluid condition, having a strong tendency to form pus. This was in a case of pneumonia, evidently of the asthenic form, in which, by vigorous stimulation and support, I could not change the inflammation or its results. The same story is true of serous membranes. The firm bands of adhesion which used to be met with in pleurisy, in the peritoneum and other serous tissues, are not found now, but in their place are seen serous or bloody effusions; the lymph which was deposited does not become organized, but is thin and somewhat

transparent, and collected into the serous cavities, thus producing embarrassing accumulations of fluid, with no tendency to be removed, but increasing as the disease progresses, impairing the vital tone of the patient. As Dr. Stokes says again, serous, or sero-fibrinous effusions tinged with coloring matter, replaces the old results of sthenic inflammations, and tallies exactly with the change in the vital character of the disease. Now let us look at the results of practice and the influence of remedial agencies under the conditions of disease, and see if there is not something which influences the same results. Formerly, when the more sthenic forms of disease prevailed in the country, blood-letting, cathartics, emetics, nauseants, and a system of starvation having a decidedly reducing effects, were followed in the treatment of fevers and inflammations, and there were no alarming symptoms; but after a long, protracted sickness, slow convalescence was eventually established. This was regarded as success, and the patient as eminently fortunate. At various periods of time, we have seen less and less of the sthenic types of disease, and as far back as 1842, the typhous element, the zymotic causes of disease began to invade the Western and Southwestern States, and the periodical fevers and inflammations governed by the influence of a periodical law, were gradually displaced by a type of adynamic fever, and the inflammations when they occurred, either as original diseases or as complications of the fevers, were not influenced or successfully treated as disease had been before. Quinia, which was known as the great agent in the cure of periodic fevers, did not cut short or benefit these diseases, but was often positively pernicious; mercury was seldom required, though often used to the serious detriment of the patient. Purgations sometimes induced an early prostration, as did also tartrate of antimony, as used in the typhoid pneumonia. Sometimes in the early stages of these cases, the depleting plan was resorted to; but when prostration was observed, the whole plan was changed to stimulating and supporting—often too late for success. The idea of change of type did not, I conceive, influence the minds of the profession sufficiently to lead them to estimate the vital forces as acted on by a zymotic poison, absolutely depressing in its influence on all. This, as well as not knowing the full value of remedies, in their proper time and place, was a great defect.

The first epidemics of typhoid fever and typhoid pneumonia were very fatal, in many localities in the West; but experience has improved, and the influences which operate to produce certain forms of disease being better known, treatment is more successful than formerly. These important changes are not due to an improved pathology, but changes of treatment, necessitated by the changes in the type of disease. As evidence of the change which the type of fever undergoes, Dr. Tweedie's report for the year 1845 shows the low form of disease by the large quantity of stimulants demanded. "He states, that in the epidemic of 1843, when eleven hundred patients were admitted into the London Fever Hospital, the quantity of

wine administered was about eighteen hundred ounces, and sixty ounces of brandy, while the next year, not half the number were admitted, and they consumed fourteen hundred ounces of wine and seventy-six ounces of brandy, besides other stimulants."

This evidence goes far to show that medical men had observed the change, and were acting upon that knowledge; and that, also, this change of type did not belong to the Western World, but had been observed in Europe. Now Dr. Bennett declares that the diminished employment of blood-letting and other antiphlogistic remedies, of late years, does not arise from a change of type, as supposed by Drs. Allison, Christison, Watson, Stokes, and many of the profession, but that the present advanced state of pathology and diagnosis has proved the former treatment to be opposed to a sound pathology. This proposition does not explain the fact that men scattered over the Western States, isolated as they often are, have not improved their knowledge of inflammations and the treatment of them, until the failure of remedies aroused them to the necessity of a change in the treatment, to meet the existing conditions of disease. We admit progress, but not in the same sense with Dr. Bennett. Dr. Parrish was not a generation ahead of his cotemporaries, when he adopted the stimulant plan of treatment in the epidemic typhus of Philadelphia in 1812 and 1813. It was not his superior knowledge of the forces of disease, but the observation of facts, combined with tact, which built for him a reputation. So it has ever been with medical men. The recognition of a medical fact and its adoption leads to success, where failure stood in the way before. This is the progress which medicine has made through past years, and each successive generation becomes the depositories of the experience of the past for the benefit of the future. To be satisfied that changes in the types of disease do occur, we have access to all the sources of evidence, as to the nature of disease by its study in the past, as well as the present, and in the pathological changes observed after death, and in the effects of therapeutic agencies. We may further quote the evidence of eminent medical men upon this question.

Dr. Watson says: "I am firmly persuaded by my own observations, and by the records of medicine, that there are waves of time, through which the sthenic and asthenic characters of disease prevail in succession, and that we are at present living in one of its adynamic phases." Dr. Stokes says, after summing up all the sources of evidence upon the nature of disease: "Looking at the question from any one of the sources of evidence, we come to the conclusion that the doctrine of a change of type is a true one, while if we take all the facts, and observe how they point to the same conclusion, we must, to use the words of Dr. Alison, 'Accept the change of type as an ultimate fact in the history of diseases.'" It seems to be true, that of the very many causes of disease which I have no doubt have power to develop new forms or types, of which we may have had but little or no experience, that they travel from one portion of the earth to another, and

generally from east to west, around the world, but simply proves what Dr. Watson has said, that there are waves of time, and I had like to have added periodic time, in which different types of disease prevail. These causes are evidently capable of inducing disease, and of influencing the character and type of disease, so that all forms of disease exhibit a certain degree of conformity to a controlling law, which is the law of the epidemic disease. "Dr. Robert Lawson, from investigations which are published, deduces a law, showing that a series of causes originate, or become apparent in the southern hemisphere, and travel northward with much regularity." This influence he designates more properly "pandemic" than "epidemic," and in conformity again with the language of Dr. Watson, "he calls these successive waves pandemic waves." Waves of disease upon the waves of time, and there is no doubt that very wide and radical changes have been presented in the successive waves of disease, from the higher and more active types to the lower or more adynamic types. Again, the same writer says: "These casual eruptions of *new forms* of disease have always taken place during the passage of a pandemic wave, and therefore concludes that this cause determines the occurrence of disease where it passes, while the forms or types are influenced by the meteorological, malarial-hygienic or social conditions of the population. He admits, however, that the facts of disease lead to the conclusion that the epidemic or pandemic cause can determine the resulting form or type of disease, though local and temporary causes may determine a different form yet impressed by the great law of epidemic influence." So it has been in the diseases of endemic origin; they are impressed by a more powerful law, and show its existence throughout all its phases. We might adduce more evidence were it needed upon this question, and we now simply say that we have travelled over all the sources of evidence, no doubt in an imperfect manner, yet it seems to us with sufficient bearing, upon the question at issue. I regard the acceptance of the facts in this paper as necessary to the proper comprehension of diseases of this era.

[Dr. FREDERICK J. BROWN, of Rochester, Eng., in a letter to the Editor of the *Medical Times and Gazette* (Aug. 4, 1866), gives the following as "an unanswerable argument" in favour of change of type:—

"Let me say that country labourers that used to be bled every spring thirty years since found themselves a few years later fainting after four ounces, whilst they formerly could lose sixteen ounces and walk miles without any sign of faintness. These are cases of people in health: therefore they are free from the fashions of sickness—treatment. The younger relatives and neighbours of these countrymen were similarly affected by bleedings: therefore it was not a case of men growing older and not tolerating bleeding from that cause."

Connected as we have been with the profession for half a century, we can testify from personal observation as to the change in type which diseases have undergone within that period; and of those who remain of our early contemporaries, we have not conversed with one who has not concurred with us as to this fact.—EDITOR.]

ART. X.—*Memoranda of Cases.* By RICHARD McSHERRY, M. D., Prof. Principles and Practice of Medicine, University of Maryland.

CASE I. *Gunshot Wound of Femur.*—On the 5th of August, 1862, I was called to see Capt. H—, U. S. 4th Artillery, in consultation with Doctor (now Professor) R. Bartholow, and other army surgeons, at Fort McHenry. Capt. H. had a compound comminuted fracture near the middle of the femur, made by a canister shot in an engagement near the city of Richmond, in the latter part of June. There was free suppuration from the wound at the time that I saw him, with much prostration. Stimulants were freely used in accordance with the necessities of his condition, and Surgeon Bartholow changed the cumbersome splints which had been previously applied for Prof. N. R. Smith's *anterior splint* (now much better known than it was then) which the patient declared, in his own strong terms, was like removing one from hell to heaven. The relief given by the change of splints was indeed very remarkable. From that time until the last moment of the patient's life, he expressed daily the comfort and satisfaction given by the anterior splint.

From my experience and reading in military surgery, I had no hope that the life of this brave officer would be saved by any treatment, since previously to the late great internecine war, it was a fact, with scarcely an exception in the records of military surgery, that gunshot wounds of the femur above the lower third resulted fatally. This case, unfortunately, was not an exception to the established rule. I saw him again in consultation one week later, and found the wound still suppurating freely; no union in the fractured bone, though "*there appears to be a considerable casing of callus,*" the patient becoming more and more emaciated, the pulse feeble, and about 110 in the minute. Supporting treatment was continued. On the 13th August, the patient was removed from the Fort to the Baltimore Infirmary, to be nearer to his friends and kindred. On the 14th, an immense sinus extending up towards the trochanter was laid open to give vent to a great accumulation of pus. The operation gave but little pain, but a tendency to sinking was manifest, which was met by the free use of stimulants. Some blood was lost also from the division of a small arterial twig, which was soon secured, but the patient was thoroughly exhausted, and he died on the morning of the 15th, at 5 o'clock, there having been some slight reaction brought on during the night by the free use of stimulants. Notwithstanding the irritative fever under which he suffered, his faculties were unclouded until he was actually dying.

It was my wish to have a thorough post-mortem examination. We had not heard as much at that time of *osteo-myelitis* or *medullitis* as we have since; but I had in memory some of Cruveilhier's pathological investigations in analogous conditions. More than a half century ago, this pathologist examined the medullary membrane of the long bones of subjects who died with typhoid symptoms after amputation. He found that phlebitis

of the bones and visceral abscesses were frequent results of wounds and operations involving these bones. The whole medullary membrane was sometimes found in a state of suppuration. The general blood-poisoning supervening with phlebitis, induced a low fever and finally death.

In the case in question, I obtained permission with some difficulty to make an examination of the seat of injury only, shortly before the time of interment. Assisted by my brother, Dr. H. F. McSherry, Surgeon U. S. Navy, I examined hastily the part injured. We found fracture with great comminution, and a large depot of sanious pus completely covering the ends of the bone. There was no attempt at repair; no *callus*. What had appeared to be during life a casing of callus was nothing more than the *disjecta fragmenta*, the upheaved and displaced fragments of bone offering an arrangement or derangement, which is probably often mistaken for callus. It was doubtful during life whether the ball was retained in the limb or not; but we found none. The patient indeed had always assured us that the ball had fallen out by the orifice of entrance.

CASE II. *Phlegmasia in the Right Arm of a Male Subject.*—A young man consulted me on the fourth of March last with a great tumefaction of the right arm involving the whole limb from the shoulder to the fingers. The affection was of spontaneous origin, and at that time of nearly three weeks' duration. The skin of the arm was cyanosed; the superficial veins were all distended and varicose; the mammary and scapular veins were notably distended. No pulsation could be felt in the right subclavian artery, but a feeble pulsation could be detected, by careful observation, in the humeral and radial arteries. The heart's action was quick and excited; otherwise the patient appeared to be in perfect health. Auscultation and percussion revealed nothing morbid, although the sounds were rather obscure on the right side of the chest, owing probably to the subcutaneous infiltration which obstructed the usual sounds. There was undoubtedly some deep venous obstruction, but the seat or cause was not detected.

I gave the patient a combination of equal parts of iodide and bicarbonate of potassa (gr. v of each four times a day), and directed active frictions to the arm of camphorated liniment with the addition of a portion of oil of cajeput. There was no rapid change in the progress of the case. Examining the patient on the 16th of the month, I found tumefaction, and pain upon pressure, in the axillary glands. As the heart's action continued to be unduly excited, I added gr. j of p. digitalis to each dose of the alterative. From about this time there was a gradual but steady amelioration of symptoms. The tumefaction in the arm, shoulder, &c., abated, the veins became less distended, the skin lost the deep blue tinge, and the heart's action was gradually reduced. When I saw the patient last on the 19th of April, he said he was well, although the arm was still somewhat above the normal dimensions. The only memorable fault was the absence of pulsation in the subclavian artery, while the pulsation in the arteries of the arm was readily perceptible, though not in full force.

CASE III. *Vesico-urethral Neurosis.*—On February 1st, of the present year, I was asked to see a married lady, æt. forty-eight, for severe suffering

in the act of micturition. She was somewhat anæmic, though not otherwise in bad condition. As she was constive, I directed a mild aperient and rest in bed, supposing that prolapsus uteri, with which she suffered occasionally, was a cause of irritation and pain about the neck of the bladder. When I saw her again, after the expiration of a few days, I found her distress not relieved but increased. She then informed me that a week previously to my first visit, she had made a day's journey in a railway car in which she had no opportunity to relieve her bladder, and that after reaching home, from the distension and loss of power in that viscus, she was unable to evacuate it for some hours subsequently. This appeared to explain the present disorder. There had evidently been a temporary paralysis which was now followed by hyperæsthesia. I examined the womb, which was but slightly displaced, and replaced it. I directed a combination of spt. eth. nit. and tinct. belladon. in moderate doses, which, upon a fair trial, gave no relief. The pain continued to be intense, and was most severe in the act of, or immediately after, micturition. As pain of much the same character is sometimes caused by a vascular tumour at the orifice of the urethra, I explored this region carefully, but there was no tumour. I also made pressure upon the bladder *per vaginam* and through the hypogastric walls. No pain was produced by the pressure. The spontaneous pain was growing worse day by day; the patient lost appetite and was suffering at all times either with intolerable pain or with the apprehensions of its speedy return. Meantime the urine was scant and muddy, being loaded with lithates. To give her temporary respite, I ordered at night a suppository consisting of gr. iiss, p. opii, in ol. theobrom. 3j. This gave decided temporary relief, but produced considerable constitutional disturbance on the following day, when withal, the pain recurred as usual. I was doubtful, indeed, whether the treatment by belladonna and opium might not increase the dysury, notwithstanding the temporary relief given by the latter. It appears to be certain that these agents, notwithstanding their partial antagonism in some respects, act in a similar manner upon the bladder. (*Mitchell, Keen, and Morehouse*). How far they may be relied upon as mutually antidotal in cases of nerve poisoning is yet, in my opinion, very far from being settled. My doubts upon this matter are not derived from the views of such men as Ainslie and Brown-Séquard, but are rather based upon my own observation, while they are enforced and sustained by the observations of these distinguished gentlemen. Not to digress, however, upon this interesting subject of research, I may say that my patient did not improve. I gave her diluent drinks freely, with the addition of bitart. of potassa, of tart. soda and potassa, &c., without any benefit. Micturition was frequent with intense pain; urine scant and cloudy, with neutral reaction. The pain for many days appeared to be directly connected, as it was, indeed, with the act of micturition; but in the course of some weeks there was an evident daily exacerbation about the middle of the day. This gave an indication for decisive treatment. Before regular periodicity was evident, I had given *inter alia*, quinia, and blue pill in combination, with little influence. I now gave the same remedies, increasing the quinia, and adding sulph. ferri and p. scillæ, the latter as a diuretic, since the whole amount of urine passed daily was always very small. The pain began to abate under this treatment, but the remedies became offensive to the stomach, and, as the physiological, as well as therapeutical, influence of the quinia was apparent, I suspended the use of the combination and directed capsules of balsam of copaiba and

cubebs with an occasional opiate suppository. There was by this time decided improvement, but still there were occasional severe, even excruciating, recurrences of pain. On the sixteenth of February, according to my notes, there was a terrible recurrence of pain, lasting from three to eight o'clock P. M. It was met by hot fomentations over the hypogastrium, and gr. ij of opium in suppository. On the following morning I directed ℥j of quinia, in broken doses, and gtt. xv of phosphoric acid in water, every three hours. After the use of the acid there was some increase of pain, but the urine gave acid reaction to test-paper. The phosphoric acid was then suspended. During all this time the bladder and womb were free from tenderness to touch, and there was no pain in the region of the kidneys and no fever. I determined, among other expedients, now to dilate the urethra mechanically, and introduced and left in the bladder a silver catheter, that the urine might pass through it instead of touching the mucous membrane of the urethra. The introduction of the instrument gave pain, but diminished to some extent the pains in micturition. It seemed to cause pain, however, in the region of the kidneys and loins, where none had been felt previously.

Dr. Handfield Jones, under the head of *Neuroses of the Urinary Organs*, speaks of a lad in whose case irritability of the bladder was attended not only with very frequent micturition, but with a greatly increased flow of urine, which "was two or three times as copious as in health." This he explains by saying that "the vesical hyperæsthesia in this instance seems to have extended to the renal nerves, and to have given rise to the increased flow of watery urine." In the case under my care, the flow of urine was diminished in aggregate quantity throughout, and there was no manifestation of sensitiveness about the kidneys until after the use of the instruments, a sound, and a catheter. On the 24th of February, I find that I was using capsules of bals. copaib. and quinia, on alternate days. Severe pain was abating, but there was then a sense of local soreness in the hypogastric region which was met by an epispastic and warm cataplasms. The blister had a very good effect.

On the 10th of March, according to my record, the patient was still suffering with occasional violent paroxysms of pain in the bladder and urethra, coming on about midday. The treatment consisted in opiate suppositories during the paroxysm, and ℥j of quinia daily, or every other day, alternated with doses of ℥j of subcarbonate of iron. A blister was reapplied to the hypogastrium. The patient was frequently under the full influence of the quinia, and the amendment was from about that time steadily and permanently progressive. The treatment was continued until the 24th of March, when she complained of distressing constipation. I directed ol. ricini by the mouth and in enema, the use of which was followed by stools hard and black with the contained iron. The patient then being nearly well, I merely directed ten drops of the muriated tincture of iron after each meal. Her recovery was soon complete. Since that time she had an attack of facial neuralgia, due to exposure to a cold and a bad tooth, but her health is otherwise as good as it was before the attack of the sufferings of which I have given but a very faint description.

BALTIMORE, May 10, 1866.

ART. XI.—*Rupture of the Uterus—Abdominal Section—Subsequent Pregnancy and Safe Delivery.* By EDWARD WHINERY, M. D., of Fort Madison, Iowa.

ON the 28th of March, 1865, at eight o'clock A. M., I visited Mrs. S., of Niota, Illinois, a healthy Irish woman about 37 years of age, who I was told was taken in labour about ten o'clock A. M. of the 27th. The first indication she had of approaching labour was the escape of the waters, soon after which regular pains supervened, and an ignorant midwife was summoned to attend her. Labour progressed regularly until about seven o'clock in the evening, when it was expected that the child would be born in a few minutes. She was seized at that time with severe burning, lancinating pains, or stitches as she called them, throughout the abdomen, and the expulsive pains immediately ceased. I found her sitting in a chair leaning forward at an inclination of about forty degrees and very unwilling to change this attitude. Her pulse was 110, irregular or fluttering; the countenance very anxious and pale; the skin cool and clammy. It was with difficulty I could induce her to assume a position convenient to make an examination per vaginam. I, however, caused her to be held at an inclination of about forty-five degrees, and passing the digital finger of the right hand into the vagina, and the left over the abdomen, I found the head of the fœtus resting well down on the perineum, but by pressing firmly against the head with my finger it ascended above the superior strait, and the whole body could be distinctly felt through the walls of the abdomen, she being of spare habit. The motion thus given to the fœtus very much increased the lancinating pains, and she cried out, "These stitches will kill me." My diagnosis was rupture of the uterus, and I informed her and her friends that her condition was very precarious. The poor midwife said she did the best she knew. She tried to give her "Mutterkorn Thee" (ergot), but the stomach would not take it. The night was very dark, and the husband and his friends were afraid to attempt to cross the Mississippi in a row boat, as it was very high, with much drift-wood floating. She therefore spent the night in applying new corn whiskey to the abdomen.

I allowed the patient to resume the attitude first mentioned, returned home for my instruments and an assistant. Dr. J. C. Blackburn accompanied me. At 10 o'clock A. M., when we arrived, no change had taken place in the patient. My friend Dr. B. thought, from the visible physical appearances and my representation of the case, that my diagnosis was correct, and we soon agreed upon the propriety of making the abdominal section. Dr. B. administered the chloroform while I was preparing other matters. We placed the patient on her back on a table, and I made the incision on the right of the umbilicus, about six inches in length, through which I removed a large male child (dead of course) and the placenta, both being entirely above the uterus, which was well contracted down into the pelvis. There was very little appearance of hemorrhage. The rupture was in the fundus from the anterior to the posterior wall. The edges of the wound were now brought together by sutures of silk, taking care to include all the structures except the peritoneum; then finishing the dressing with adhesive straps, a compress, and a wide bandage. The operation and dressing were performed in less than five minutes, and the patient placed in bed still under the influence of the chloroform. When she recovered

from its effects she expressed herself as feeling quite comfortable and grateful for her delivery from her intense suffering for so many hours.

We expected peritoneal inflammation to supervene, but in this we were happily disappointed. I visited her on the 29th, and found her quite comfortable; the pulse had gone down to eighty, and every symptom was favourable; the lochia was moderate in quantity; she had been nearly free from pain, and slept well during the night, though she had not taken any of the morphia and quina powders left for her in case irritation and debility should supervene.

March 30 and 31. Continues without an unfavourable symptom.

On the 3d of April she sat up three or four hours in bed. The wound had healed by the first intention.

On the 5th I took out the sutures but continued the adhesive straps, the compress and the bandage; she was then dressed and sitting up.

On the 8th the lochia ceased, and she went about her ordinary housework.

On the first of June she menstruated, and again on the first of July. Then she became pregnant, and on the first day of this April she gave birth to a healthy female child. I was in attendance, and found the "waters" had passed off two days before, but there had been no pain until within three hours of the time of my arrival. The os uteri was well dilated, and the head of the fœtus was entering the superior strait. Fearing that the former rupture might have impaired the integrity of the uterus, and that we might again have the accident repeated, I applied the forceps and assisted the expulsive efforts, so that in an hour and a quarter after entering her room, I had the satisfaction of finishing her delivery. She and her friends were very much relieved, for she had heard that it was the opinion of some medical men that she could not go through parturition safely after such an accident. There was nothing unusual attending gestation. She says this is her tenth pregnancy, and the easiest delivery she ever had; she generally had had difficult deliveries. Two of her children had been still-born in consequence of protracted and difficult labour.

Within the last fifteen years I have not hesitated to use the forceps at the proper time in preference to giving ergot. It is much more humane and altogether more safe. When the forceps are applied the danger of rupture of the uterus is passed, and by skilful traction and manipulation during each pain the suffering of the woman is very much lessened; but the effect of ergot in increasing the uterine contractions is sometimes too horrid to contemplate, and I shall never give it again for such a purpose. I have practised obstetrics in general practice more than a quarter of a century, and attended about 1500 cases of parturition, but never met with a case of rupture of the uterus before; and I think this accident would not have occurred in the present case in the hands of a scientific practitioner.

A very large proportion of the cases I find reported in the journals and works on midwifery have proved fatal. Very few who have reported cases have resorted to the abdominal section.

ART. XII.—*Case of United Twins.* By PHILIP HARVEY, M. D., of Burlington, Iowa. (With two wood-cuts.)

CASES of monstrosity possess a high degree of interest, both in a practical and speculative point of view. The one that I am about to relate is a case of twins, females, which were united by the parietes of the thoracic and abdominal cavities, from their necks to the common umbilicus.

I was sent for between eight and nine o'clock A. M., of Saturday the 14th inst., by the midwife in attendance, to see Mrs B., a German lady, residing near this city. She had then been in labour about nine hours, and the pains were vigorous and frequent. It was a primiparous case, the woman young and healthy, and rather under than over the middle size. On examination I found three legs protruding into the world nearly as far as the hips, and was informed they had been in that situation, with but little progress, for two or three hours. A careful scrutiny failed to detect the bond of union between the two children; indeed, from the rarity of such an occurrence it could hardly have been anticipated. Supposing them to be separate, I considered the proper plan of procedure would be to return one body as far as possible into the uterus, while the other was being brought down and extracted; but all efforts proved inadequate either to make the one advance, or the other recede. One funis could be felt, in which there was no pulsation, neither could any be perceived in the posterior tibial arteries; and the limbs being flaccid, and two of them somewhat livid, I had no doubt the children were both dead. I therefore deemed it justifiable and proper to divide one of the bodies above the ilia, in hopes that the pelvis of one being out of the way. I might be able to bring down the other and effect a separate delivery. To make this division I used the nail blade of a pocket knife, the cutting part being short and easily guarded by the finger from injuring the mother. This operation was attended with no difficulty. I was now able to make out that the two bodies were closely united face to face, so that above the umbilicus there appeared to be but one common trunk. The mass proving to be still immovable, I next attempted a division of the bond of union as high as could be reached; by this means the connection was so loosened that the prominence of one child could adapt themselves to depressions of the other, when, by the use of a good deal of tractile force, the thorax was brought into the inferior strait, the arms were then brought down and finally delivery was effected. These proceedings occupied about three hours, during which time the pains were strong and frequent; though I do not think they contributed much to the expulsion of the birth.

We sometimes meet with emergencies, in which it becomes necessary for art to take the case out of the hands of nature, in consequence of the entire

inadequacy of the latter; I viewed this as one of those emergencies. The labour was of ordinary duration for a first child, having lasted about twelve hours; and though the woman undoubtedly suffered much, her recovery was as rapid as could be expected under the most favourable circumstances.

Irregularities of conformation may be divided into deficiencies, redundancies, fissures, closures, and coalitions; the present instance belongs to the last of these divisions. In all respects, but the abnormality of structure, the children were finely developed and of the full ordinary size of twins; their weight being nearly eleven pounds. They were attached together

Fig. 1.



Fœtus.

from the neck to the umbilicus (see Fig. 1), not by a movable band, as in the Siamese twins, but by the ribs and clavicles of each child being continued to a common sternum on either side. In fact the two sets of ribs, sterna, clavicles, and soft parts were so arranged as to form one large thoracic cavity common to both; they were thus firmly and almost immovably united. There was but one funis; that contained four arteries and one vein; this was inserted into the lower and central part of the connection. The livers were united and contained two gall-bladders; the other abdominal viscera were distinct and regular. The double thorax contained two sets of lungs,

smaller than usual, weighing only an ounce and a half; a large double thymus gland; but only one heart. This weighed about an ounce, was flattened and suspended diagonally across the centre of the thorax. The structure of this viscus was perhaps the most interesting feature of the case. Instead of being a combination of two hearts, as might have been expected, it was quite unique in its anatomy, the heart of a nondescript, and capable of subserving the purposes of uterine life only. It contained but one auricle, into which opened two systemic and two pulmonary veins. The auricle communicated by two auriculo-ventricular openings, each guarded by a pair of mitral valves, with a large muscular ventricle, from which issued two aortæ of ordinary size, with perfect semilunar valves. On each side of this large ventricle was a smaller one, communicating freely with the larger, and having no corresponding auricle. A small pulmonary

artery, destitute of valves and not more than a tenth of the size of the aortæ, passed from each of the smaller ventricles. (See diagram, Fig. 2.)

Fig. 2.

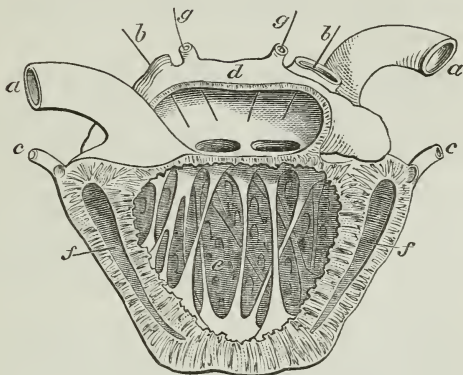


DIAGRAM OF THE HEART.—*a, a.* Aorta. *b, b.* Venæ cavæ. *c, c.* Pulmonary arteries. *d.* Auricle. *e.* Large ventricle. *f, f.* Small ventricles. *g.* Pulmonary veins.

The physiology of a heart of this kind would show the circulation to be permanently sub-reptilian in character. Those wonderful changes in the circulatory organs that take place after birth in ordinary cases, and compel the entire current of the blood there to flow on its twofold mission, through the pulmonary and systemic vessels, could not have occurred in this instance. Only a small proportion of the blood could have reached the lungs; much too small for the respiratory purposes of a high organization. Cold blooded life alone could be sustained with such a heart; hence these twins were non-viable.

It is to be regretted that popular and parental prejudices stood in the way of the preservation of this singular *lusus natureæ*.

BURLINGTON, IOWA, April 22, 1866.

ART. XIII.—*Arrest of Hemorrhage by Styptic and Compression, with a Case involving the Posterior Tibial Artery, incised transversely.* By J. W. SHERFY, M.D., Act. Passed Asst. Surg. U. S. N.

IN the number of this *Journal* for October, 1865, there was published an article on the "Arrest of Hemorrhage after Gunshot Wounds," &c., by Dr. James M. Holloway. The arguments in favour of styptics and com-

pression, illustrated by numerous cases, seemed conclusive as to the feasibility of these measures under certain circumstances, and induced me to make a trial of them in the following case, which appeared to demand something more decisive and speedy than a resort to ligation. The success of the application suggests the propriety of reporting it. The following are the notes in my journal:—

Naval Station, Bay Point, S. C., May 7, 1866. Plenty Grant, landsman, aged 27, while using an adze, received a severe wound by the tool's glancing from its aim. It entered the inside of the left leg at the junction of the lower and middle thirds, just missing the tibia, cutting backward, upward, and outward, severing almost the entire calf, including the *posterior tibial artery*. The wound was about four inches long, by one and a half deep. The patient is very muscular and full-blooded. The hemorrhage was of course very great. When brought to the dispensary, nearly five hundred yards distant, he was in a *fainting condition*, with *intense thirst*. By the assistance of a friend, the wound was held tightly while I applied tourniquets to the femoral and popliteal arteries, the first not seeming to effect much. Gave an ounce and a half of whiskey in twelve ounces of water, which he drank greedily.

In consequence of his weak condition, I deemed it hazarding too great a loss of blood to attempt ligating the cut ends of the artery, and thought at once of arresting hemorrhage by a styptic and compression, as set forth in an article in the *American Journal of the Medical Sciences*, Oct. 1865, page 340. Accordingly I saturated numerous pieces of patent lint, two inches square, with persulph. ferri solution, half strength, and forming a heavy pledget, forced it strongly into the wound, applying additional pieces upon and around it, and retaining these in place with a light bandage. I then bandaged closely from the toes upward, three inches above the incision, elevating the foot, and pouring on cold water freely. *The arrest was instantaneous.* Not half a drachm of blood escaped after the pledgets and first roller were applied. The tourniquet on the femoral was removed in four hours, having been gradually loosened, because painful. The accident happened at 12 o'clock, and he remained at the dispensary till 6 o'clock, when he was conveyed home, and a watch set over him for the night, with instructions how to proceed should hemorrhage begin, and to send for me immediately. R. Morph. gr. $\frac{1}{2}$. Water applied every fifteen minutes or oftener; foot elevated.

The result of this treatment is awaited with considerable interest, especially by some half dozen medical officers who have heard of the case. I do not lack *confidence* in it, but my own interest is augmented by that of others. I repeat the reasons for its adoption: the great loss of blood the patient had already suffered, his feeble condition therefrom, and my unwillingness to lose *more* by the operation of ligating.

May 8. No indication of recurring hemorrhage. Had a comfortable night. Popliteal tourniquet painful; loosened it a little. Cold water freely, to relieve pain and swelling. Anodyne at night.

9th. Comfortable. Removed tourniquet. Water, *by irrigation*, copiously. Pain and swelling controlled by it. Anodyne at night. Pain in the calf of the leg above the wound. Complains some of bandages, but yielded to advice to endure them one night more.

10th. Removed nearly all the bandages, and loosened the remainder.

Continued water by irrigation plenteously. Does not suffer much. In good spirits; functions all normal. The water relieves pain readily. No sign of hemorrhage. The lint seems to be a solid *plug*, completely sealing the wound. Some of the external lint removed.

11th. Same general treatment. Removed outer and loose portions of lint. Wound seems completely stopped tight, as if the pledget would be covered in and become a part of that locality.

12th. Same as yesterday. Seems to be doing finely.

13th. Removed more of the loose portions of pledget, trimming them off with scissors. Is doing very well. Suffers very little. Water copiously. R. Sulph. magn. $\frac{3}{4}$ ss.

14th. Removed lint, as yesterday. Changed bandage, limiting it to the immediate vicinity of the injury. Water, p. r. n., guided by swelling and pain.

15th. Pledget loose, and gently removed it entire, leaving the wound smooth (as if polished) and healthy, with a *hard plastic wall* around it, and now it *cannot* bleed. A mere trace of suppuration. Adhesive straps to approximate edges. Water, as before.

16th. Drew edges nearer with Husband's plaster. Simple dressings; water, p. r. n.

17th to 22d. Same as before.

24th. Goes easily on crutches.

The wound closed gradually, but, the muscles having been cut across their course, he regained strength in the injured limb very slowly. There is a depression in the line of incision. He has now, Aug. 25, been doing carpenter's duty nearly two months.

There are several considerations that urge the adoption of Dr. Holloway's suggestions, so clearly advanced. Whenever styptics and compression are applicable, they avoid—1. Additional loss of blood; a vital point, indeed, when a patient is nearly exhausted from a previous drain. 2. Enlarging, in some instances, the seat of injury, or the necessity of a new and separate incision; important items in some situations. 3. The administration of chloroform, with its attendant inconveniences and dangers, always to be borne in mind; or, at least, the use of ether, not always unattended with trouble. 4. The dread, to the patient, of the surgeon's knife; not an insignificant feature in some cases. 5. Complications and necessary assistance, so needful to some other methods of arrest, particularly the old, long-tried, and favourite method of ligation. The simplicity, convenience, and rapidity of styptics and compression, *when they are applicable*, are powerful arguments in their favour. And though we are compelled, in general, to forego the much-desired attainment of "primary union," and require a little more time for recovery, yet may we not gladly sacrifice these for the advantages above mentioned?

Hemorrhage from wounds is certainly divested of many of its former terrors. In this age the surgeon may well congratulate himself that the rapid and wonderful discoveries and improvements in his art have placed at his disposal such valuable means of combating an accident so common—always dangerous, always feared—and reduced it to comparative insignifi-

cance. Among these are the tourniquet, the ligature, acupressure, styptic and compression, digital pressure, refrigeration, and the ethereal tannic solution with the nebulizer. Here are means suitable to almost every case, and frequently there is a choice among several applicable to a particular case. Furthermore, it is reasonable to suppose that the advancement of our art may develop something else that will pass successfully the test of experience.

ART. XIV.—*Shoulder Presentation. Version in the Position on the Knees and Breast.* By JNO. G. BIGHAM, M. D., of Millersburg, Ohio.

ON the 12th of August, 1866, I was called by Mrs. F., æt. thirty-eight, in her sixth labour. Learned that the liquor amnii had been discharged two hours previously to my arrival; and found an arm in the vagina, together with a prolapsed and pulseless funis.

The pains were frequent and strong, and the shoulder was pressed firmly into the superior strait. Having no chloroform, and being four miles in the country, I determined to attempt version without the aid of an anæsthetic.

The patient was placed in the ordinary position for the operation for vesico-vaginal fistula (as suggested by Dr. Hildreth in *The American Journal of the Medical Sciences* for Jan. 1866). Found no difficulty in displacing the shoulder from its position sufficiently to introduce the hand. The force of the pains seemed materially diminished by the change of posture. After securing a foot I was surprised at the facility with which the version was accomplished.

Having twice previously been compelled to turn without the benefit of an anæsthetic, and giving due consideration to the degree of impaction of the presenting part, as well as to the size of the fœtus, &c. (this one weighing five and a half pounds), I have no hesitation in adding my mite of testimony in favour of the position named, when turning is required.

TRANSACTIONS OF SOCIETIES.

ART. XV.—*Summary of the Transactions of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia.*

1865. Dec. 6. *Case of Strangulated Hernia.*—Dr. JOHN ASHHURST, Jr., read the following account of a case:—

William J. McCann, an Irishman, thirty-eight years of age, an operative in a cotton factory, was admitted to the Episcopal Hospital on the morning of Thursday, August 17, 1865, suffering from strangulated inguinal hernia of the right side. He stated that he had been ruptured six years previously by a strain caused by the stumbling of a horse which he was riding, and that his hernia had since come down at varying intervals, but had always hitherto been easily replaced. He had never worn a truss, and had sometimes been several months without any re-descent of his hernia. His right thigh was shortened and distorted, the result of disease of the bone in early life.

The hernia came down early on the morning of August 14th (Monday), and for the first time could not be replaced. He continued to work, however, during Monday and Tuesday, though suffering on the latter day from a great deal of pain and griping about the umbilicus. On Wednesday he sent for a physician, who made an unsuccessful attempt to reduce the hernia, and then left him, merely directing a purgative dose of magnesia. On Thursday he was brought to the hospital, where I found him at my morning visit of that day. At that time his skin was cold, his pulse feeble and rapid, his countenance shrunk, and his features pinched and anxious. He had been able to retain nothing in his stomach since Monday, rejecting absolutely everything by vomiting. He complained of intense and constant griping in the umbilical region, but was perfectly rational and anxious for operative relief.

Inspection of the groin showed a small tumour, red and excessively tender, immediately above Poupart's ligament on the right side, and which evidently contained a knuckle of intestine in a state of deep congestion if not positively inflamed.

The patient being thoroughly etherized, I resorted to the taxis for a few moments and with great gentleness, when, finding the hernia irreducible, I immediately proceeded with the operation as usually performed. Having divided all the tissues, except the hernial sac, I found that though the tumour could now easily be returned into the abdomen, the constricted bowel could not be emptied of its contents; in fact, that if the operation was terminated at this point the strangulation would continue, though the hernia were reduced. I, therefore, at once laid open the sac, and divided its contracted neck, when all evidences of constriction disappeared.

The bowel was darkly discoloured in one or two spots, but not to such an extent as to induce me to hesitate about returning it to the abdominal cavity. The lips of the wound were then accurately adjusted by means

of the interrupted suture of lead wire, and supported by a light compress and bandage. Half a grain of acetate of morphia was administered by hypodermic injection, and the patient thus kept quiet after the effects of the ether had passed off.

His diet was directed to be limited for a few days to a teaspoonful of milk every two hours. His bowels were opened by an enema the afternoon of the following day, and his urine drawn off by a catheter at stated intervals as long as it was necessary.

This man recovered rapidly and without a single unfavourable symptom, the incision being entirely healed on September 11th, and the patient leaving the house a week later quite well.

With regard to the question of opening the sac in the operation for strangulated hernia, I should, of course, prefer to avoid this additional risk if it could be done with safety. And hence in a case where strangulation had existed but a short time, if I found on reaching the sac that the bowel could be emptied of its contents and rendered perfectly flaccid by slight pressure, I should consider it proper to return the sac unopened, believing that the prospects of recovery would be thus improved; but in the opposite contingency, and generally in any case of doubt, I should think it much safer to lay open the sac, knowing that after all, death following this operation is very seldom due to the operation itself, but rather to the condition of things preceding.

I have added a table giving a record of all the cases of strangulated hernia treated in the hospital from its opening to the present time, for which I am indebted to Dr. Bodine the present senior resident surgeon.

An analysis of the following table shows that of twelve cases three were under forty years of age, five between forty and fifty, and four over sixty; nine were males, and three females; six were natives of this country, and six foreigners; three were single, five married, and four widowed; four recovered, and eight died, one of the latter being in such a condition when admitted as not to permit any operation.

The average residence in hospital of those who recovered was $53\frac{1}{2}$ days; of those who died $5\frac{3}{8}$ days; of those who died after operation $5\frac{2}{7}$ days.

The occupations of these patients were so various as not to justify any inference as to the effect the nature of a person's employment might exercise as a predisposing or exciting cause of the disease.

No doubt many if not most of the fatal cases in the above table would have recovered had the operation been resorted to at an earlier period; and it is a matter of regret that every physician should not feel himself competent to operate in any case the moment strangulation occurs, instead of temporizing, as is too often done, until the disease has so far advanced as to render the most skilful operation of no avail.

A tabular view of twelve cases of strangulated hernia treated at the Episcopal Hospital.

No.	Name.	Age.	Sex.	Nativity.	Conjugal state.	Occupation.	Date of Entrance.	Result.	Date of discharge.	Days in Hospital.	Remarks.
1	William Scholscher	50	M.	Germany	Widower	Labourer	July 8, 1854	Recov'd	Sept. 9, 1854	54	
2	Frances Johnson	76	F.	Ireland	Widow	Teacher	Sept. 9, 1856	Died	Sept. 16, 1856	7	
3	Robert Trotten	70	M.	Ireland	Married	Weaver	Oct. 3, 1856	Died	Oct. 9, 1856	6	Artificial anus had formed before admission, therefore no operation.
4	James Flood	32	M.	Ireland	Married	Dyer	April 14, 1857	Died	April 25, 1857	11	
5	Elisha Cunningham	45	M.	U. S.	Married	Machinist	Dec. 29, 1858	Died	Jan. 3, 1859	5	Died from peritonitis.
6	Elizabeth Hammel	44	F.	U. S.	Widow	Nurse	Dec. 13, 1859	Died	Dec. 19, 1859	6	Strangulation had lasted five days; bowel gave way four days after operation, and feces passed by wound.
7	Thomas Dunlap	40	M.	Ireland	Married	Weaver	April 19, 1860	Died	April 21, 1860	2	
8	Josiah Weeks	43	M.	U. S.	Single	Shoemaker	July 20, 1860	Died	July 21, 1860	1	
9	William Patterson	25	M.	U. S.	Single	Waterman	Jan. 4, 1862	Recov'd	Feb. 2, 1862	29	
10	Peter Appleton	68	M.	U. S.	Married	Wheelwright	Jan. 9, 1862	Died	Jan. 14, 1862	5	
11	Mary Ann Burch	62	F.	U. S.	Single	Nurse	Sept. 26, 1863	Recov'd	Jan. 2, 1864	98	Hernial sac not opened.
12	William J. McCann	38	M.	Ireland	Widower	Operative	Aug. 17, 1865	Recov'd	Sept. 18, 1865	32	

1866. *Jan. 3. Strangulated Hernia.*—Dr. PACKARD related two cases of strangulated femoral hernia, illustrating the importance of an operation being performed sufficiently early.

CASE I. Nancy Stoddard, æt. 49, was admitted into the Episcopal Hospital December 20, 1865. She was in good general condition, but had a tumour in the left groin, tender but not painful. This tumour had first appeared after she had made a violent effort one week before, since which time her bowels had not been moved. She was said to have had stercoraceous vomiting, but this was not certainly known. She was herself of rather feeble intellect, and the history given of her by her friends was somewhat vague. Two physicians had seen her, and made attempts at taxis, but had only succeeded in bruising the skin, which was discoloured, and, as before stated, tender.

On the evening of her admission she had some vomiting, thought by the nurse to be stercoraceous, but not decidedly so. Two injections were given her; the first brought away some scybalous masses, the other came away unchanged.

On the 21st I examined the case with my colleague, Dr. S. Ashhurst. We had just decided to wait for twenty-four hours before interfering, in view of the patient's general good condition and the doubtfulness of the history and local signs, when decidedly stercoraceous vomiting occurred, and I at once proceeded to operate.

An incision was made along the most projecting part of the swelling, and the layers successively divided until we reached the sac, which was greatly distended, and closely resembled bowel. Dividing this very carefully by successive cuts on a director, we were at length met by a gush of dark reddish grumous liquid with a slightly fecal odor.

Laying the sac open freely, I found a loop of intestine, very much congested, constricted at the femoral ring. On dividing Gimbernat's ligament inwards, with a Cooper's knife, to the extent of about one-quarter of an inch, I returned the bowel without difficulty. The wound was sponged out and closed with five wire sutures.

The patient was at once placed under the use of opium freely, both by mouth and by suppository. The dressings were soon soaked with a thin yellow stercoraceous liquid like that vomited previously, and this continued to flow until shortly before death, which took place in about ten hours. Air also passed occasionally through the wound. From the time of the operation, which was done with the aid of ether, nothing was retained by the stomach.

On opening the abdomen, the strangulated knuckle of intestine, a portion of the ileum, about three feet above the caput coli, was at once seen. The pelvis was full of thin fecal matter, which had escaped from the bowel by an opening a few lines above the point of constriction. Signs of commencing peritonitis were everywhere visible.

My own idea is that the long continued strangulation had so weakened the tissues that they gave way as soon as peristaltic motion was renewed, and that an operation six or seven days sooner would have saved the patient's life.

CASE II. The other case alluded to was that of Mrs. Duffy, æt. 60, who came under my care in the absence of Dr. Norris, November 12, 1862. She had been attacked three days before with symptoms of strangulation in a hernia which she had had for fifteen years. Her bowels became at once obstinately costive; she had some pain in the upper part of the

stomach, and nausea and vomiting ensued. Some of the matters ejected were stercoraceous. Attempts at taxis were made without success.

When I saw her the tumour was about as large as a hen's egg, firm, but slightly movable, and painful only when pressed upon. Her pulse was quick and not very strong, her nausea constant; the tongue was covered with a dirty fur.

With the assistance of Drs. Boker and Wurts, she was thoroughly etherized by Simpson's method, and the taxis was again attempted, but in vain. I therefore proceeded to operate by cutting down obliquely over the most prominent part of the tumour. A small artery, probably the superficial epigastric, required ligation. Several successive layers of tissue were next divided, the hernial protrusion was reached and found to be femoral. The constriction was quite firm and seated just at the ring. Gimbernat's ligament was nicked in two places, a few adhesions broken up with the finger-nail, and the protrusion returned. It consisted simply of a knuckle of intestine. The wound was immediately closed with sutures and cold water dressings applied. She was ordered gr. ij of opium every six hours.

Nov. 13. Pulse 80; skin good. No vomiting or pain since the operation.

A day or two after there was a slight erythematous blush about the wound, which soon disappeared under the use of an ointment of oxide of zinc.

15th. She had a free alvine evacuation without pain.

18th. The sutures were removed, the wound having closed except at the point where the ligature was attached.

The ligature came away a day or two later, and the case presented no further symptoms worthy of record. I believe that the result would have been far otherwise had the operation been put off until the local symptoms became more urgent, and that the rule in all cases should be to interfere with the knife at once when strangulation exists and the taxis cannot be successfully employed. Nor should attempts at the taxis be carried on too long, for the bruising of the parts may be such as to influence very unfavourably the ultimate issue of the case. In the instance first mentioned it may be fairly supposed that an earlier operation would have saved the patient's life.

March 7. Abscess of Brain.—Dr. LEVICK made the following remarks:—

On Friday, Feb. 9, 1866, Mr. W. (æ. 40) called at my office and left word for me to visit him during the day. I found him, a few hours later, in his chamber, complaining of pain in his head, and of what he termed "biliousness." He subsequently told me that he could see but one-half of my face, and on holding up my hand, that only one-half of it could be seen by him, the other half being replaced by a dark line. This occurred equally when one eye was closed or when both were open. The pupils responded naturally to light, and the pulse was 70. He had attended to his usual business, that of a musician by night and a shopkeeper by day, until the morning of my visit. On the preceding night he had played with the band until 2 o'clock A.M.

A careful investigation disclosed the following facts: On the 9th of May, 1865, he hurt his head by the falling of a bed-canopy; this did not amount to much. On the 29th of June a window-cornice fell and stunned

him. In July and August he occasionally had headache and unusual drowsiness, so much so that while performing at the park he would often fall asleep as soon as he had finished his part, between the pieces of music. Six weeks before calling on me he at times felt giddy, so much so that in one instance, while walking the street, he had to hold on to the lamp-post to keep from falling. On several occasions, when arranging goods on the shelves in his shop, he would brush his hands over his forehead and say he was giddy, or, to use his own words, was "drunk without having drunk anything." Yet these symptoms were so slight as to have excited no uneasiness, and had left so little impression that they were only elicited by a rigid examination. During the entire winter he had been engaged with his band three nights of each week, and had played at all or nearly all the various balls given at the Academy of Music. It may be further stated that he was a man of very temperate habits, and that nearly all of his family had died of consumption.

Pain in the head and imperfect vision, with some slight gastric derangement, were the troubles complained of at my first visit. These symptoms continued, the pain in the head at times intense, at others almost entirely absent. A heavily-coated tongue, and a taste as if turpentine were in the mouth, were next noted. The patient walked about his room until the morning of the 19th, though complaining of intense pain in the head, and said his head felt as if it were as large as a bushel. There was no undue muscular rigidity, no paralysis, no convulsion, no aphasia, and the mind was perfectly clear until a few hours before death, so much so that on the morning of the 19th, one day before he died, he recollected that the policy of insurance on his house had that day expired, and gave directions for its renewal. During the latter part of this day there was some mental obscurity, with lucid intervals. Late in the evening he called his wife to him, kissed her affectionately, and gave directions about his child. A few hours later he became comatose, and died at 6 A.M. of the 20th ult.

The *post-mortem* examination was made fifty-six hours after death. The brain only was examined, and is now presented to the College. The subsequent notes are those of Dr. William Pepper, Jr., by whom the examination was carefully conducted.

Post-mortem appearances, Feb. 22, 1866, fifty-six hours after death. Brain only examined. By Dr. WILLIAM PEPPER, Jr.—The vessels of the dura mater and arachnoid much gorged with blood; membranes on the convexity of the brain smooth, though in some places opaque and thickened; no effusion at the base. On removing the brain, the various structures at the base of the brain were all much softened and discoloured. On making incisions into the brain, an abscess was found in the anterior lobe of the left hemisphere, and a second one in the posterior lobe of the right. The one in the left hemisphere was small (about the size of a hickory-nut), the tissue around it much softened, and the abscess not surrounded by any well-marked wall. The contents, microscopically examined, were imperfect pus-cells, granule-cells, and granular matter. The abscess in the right hemisphere bulged the arachnoid out, it was so superficial, and was of much larger size than the other, measuring an inch and a half in diameter. It was inclosed by quite a firm wall consisting of condensed connective tissue, the spindle-shaped cells very large, and was lined by a layer of tenacious lymph. Its contents were purulent, identical with those before mentioned. The ventricles did not contain

much fluid, but each was lined by a layer of consistent, whitish-yellow inflammatory lymph. The nerve structure, in all parts excepting the more central portions, was in a state of white softening. No tubercle-corporuscles were seen.

Etherization.—Dr. PACKARD called attention to the subject of anæsthesia by sulphuric ether in the following remarks:—

In May, 1865, I brought before the College¹ some statements of Dr. Lente, of Cold Spring, N. Y., as to the small quantity of ether required to produce anæsthesia, if given in a certain way. I have since had numerous opportunities of testing the accuracy of Dr. Lente's views, and although I have not succeeded in obtaining as complete insensibility as he has in so short a time or with so small an expenditure of ether, I believe his idea is very valuable in the saving of that expensive article. The great point is to have in the inhaler as little substance to absorb the ether, compared with the surface of evaporation, as possible. Hence a thick sponge is very wasteful of ether. A very thin towel or handkerchief, fitted inside of a cone of newspaper or pasteboard, answers extremely well. A small quantity only of ether should be put in at a time, and this should be *dashed* in, so as to spread out and evaporate readily. No fear whatever need be entertained of bad consequences from the inhalation of pure ether vapor (as nearly as we can give it), unless the patient is the subject of serious thoracic disease, or is very old and feeble. In this latter case, I believe I have seen pulmonary apoplexy brought on by the prolonged administration of ether.

May 2. Fatal Peritonitis from Perforation of the Appendix Vermiformis.—Dr. A. D. HALL exhibited to the College a specimen, with history, obtained from a patient of Dr. Corse, of this city, at whose request the examination was made.

Mrs. S., aged 25 years, of slender frame and rather delicate health, the mother of two children, the youngest four months old, both of whom she had been obliged to wean soon after birth, from want of nourishment, had complained for one or two weeks chiefly of languor and debility, when she was attacked, on the 10th of March, with severe pain in the lower part of the abdomen, followed by nausea and vomiting. The pain continued during the two following days, but had somewhat abated on Tuesday, the 13th, when she ate a piece of chicken, after which it became greatly aggravated and the vomiting still more incessant. On Wednesday, the case having assumed a more serious aspect, her husband, himself a physician, sought other counsel. At this time her pulse was 140, abdomen extremely tender on pressure, bowels obstinately constipated and somewhat tympanitic, and the stomach extremely irritable. She lay upon her side, with her legs drawn up, and had an anxious, distressed countenance. There was no tumour or other indication of hernia to account for the symptoms, and the disease was at once recognized as peritonitis of the most general and dangerous type. The usual remedies for peritonitis were employed without effect, and the patient died on the 15th of March.

Inspection, fifteen hours after death.—The body preserved in ice; rather a small, spare figure, face thin, surface of abdomen marked with leech-bites and the effects of a blister. Small amount of fat in the abdominal

¹ See Transactions of the College, in the Amer. Journal for Jan. 1866, p. 154.

parietes. Half an ounce of fluid pus was found in the interspace between the stomach and liver. The folds of the mesentery and the convolutions of the intestines were glued together by easily separated lymph. About six ounces of brownish turbid serum were found in the pelvic cavity. The results of inflammation appeared, however, most marked in the right iliac region, and hence arose a suspicion of perforation of the intestine in that neighbourhood. On a careful examination, a perforating ulcer of the appendix was found, through which a grooved director could be passed, communicating freely with the peritoneal cavity. The perforations were two in number. The first was one inch from the caput coli; the muscular coat of the bowel appeared to have been destroyed by ulceration, and then the peritoneal coat had given way in three small openings one-sixteenth of an inch in diameter; these were arranged in a triangular manner. The second was a solitary perforation an inch and a half from the end of the appendicula. The mucous membrane of the process appeared to be extensively ulcerated, and in places presented the cribriform appearance not unfrequently found in the intestinal tract of patients dying of Bright's disease. Although thick patches of lymph had been thrown out in separate deposits, still no attempt by nature to limit the effusion of foreign material by lymph barriers was discoverable. There was nothing to show that any foreign body nor that any impaction of feces had been the origin of the lesion, although the material, if such had been the origin of the mischief, might readily enough have escaped into the cavity of the abdomen.

Perforation of the appendix is not at all a rare occurrence. Numerous cases of it may be found in the *Transactions of the Pathological Society of London*, and in the various journals, domestic and foreign. The presence of foreign bodies as a cause of ulceration and perforation was probably the most generally received opinion; but in thirteen cases under Prof. Lendet's¹ observation, six were consecutive upon phthisis pulmonalis, and in no case under that author's notice was the perforation the result of typhoid fever. In the case laid before the College there was no suspicion of either typhoid or tubercular disease.

¹ Pathological and Clinical Researches regarding Ulceration and Perforation of the Appendix Vermiformis, Archives Générales, Août, Septembre, 1859.

ART. XVI.—*Summary of the Proceedings of the Pathological Society of Philadelphia.*

1866. March 14. *Cancer of the Liver.*—Dr. H. WILLIAMS presented the specimen and read the history of the case from which it was derived.

John McGliney, æt. 45; Ireland; a labourer in a rolling-mill; healthy parentage; always enjoyed good health until early in July, 1865; had been a moderate drinker. He first noticed, from no explainable cause, a catching pain about the left lower ribs, shooting over to right side, which was subject to irregular remissions.

December 11. His liver was markedly enlarged, especially the left lobe, but there was no jaundice. His urine was normal in every respect. He still complained much of the pain mentioned above.

Jan. 8. A slight icterode tinge of the conjunctiva was noticed, which deepened in a few days into universal jaundice; increased debility, with progressive emaciation, and great tenderness over the region of the liver. It was apparent to the hand that bossellations existed over the surfaces of the enlarged hepatic lobes that were exposed to palpation. His appetite now was very poor, food giving him much distress. His stools were of a light clay colour, natural consistence; though at times constipation existed. Tongue throughout maintained thick coat of yellowish-white fur.

Feb. 2. The enlargement at the upper part of the abdomen had become very marked, and there was slight bulging of the lower ribs of the right side. There was tenderness over the point of swelling as well as the whole hepatic region proper, but in the part of the liver exposed to palpation it was noted that it existed more markedly in several localized spots. Nausea was a frequent symptom at this time, but rarely or never was there vomiting; pain, irrespective of pressure, almost constantly existed. The urine was at this time 1012; slightly acid, deep biliary brown colour; no albumen; chlorides fair; it gave a greenish-purple play of colour with nitric acid. Venous circulation of the skin of the abdomen was marked more especially on the right side. The thoracic viscera proper seemed to be in a normal condition, though a trifle less resonant percussion than existed in the left was noted anteriorly at the upper part of the right lung. (The heart sounds were normal.) There was some dulness with feeble respiration at the base of the right lung, probably from upward pressure of the enlarged liver.

28th. The abdominal tumour had become more marked, as also the bossellated feel of its surface. Emaciation was very great, with corresponding debility. He continued to fail in strength and flesh, but with no new symptoms. The mind remained clear. He died March 7th, from exhaustion.

Post-mortem twelve hours after death.—Body and all the tissues jaundiced; lungs healthy, save a few calcareous concretions at both apices, and ossification of many of the bronchi; heart smaller than natural; clot in right ventricle; spleen normal, as were the kidneys. From the upper end of the jejunum through the transverse colon, the mucous membrane covered

with grumous blood, mixed with slime and mucus. The liver was much enlarged, especially its left lobe, which extended across to left side. Its surface was bossellated, and interior studded with yellow masses from size of millet-seed to that of a walnut; of a semi-caseous consistence. The microscope showed in these, liver cells crowded with granular fat, and in some instances oil drops; free nuclei with sometimes one and two nucleoli; cells of irregular form, containing one to three nuclei—granular matter; the whole involved more or less in a non-fibrillated stroma, which would be granular in one field, in another more uniform. Between these cancerous nodules the liver cells were stained of yellow hue, especially the fat granules contained in them.

Phthisis Pulmonalis. Death from Tubercular Meningitis in an Adult.—Dr. GEORGE PEPPER read the following case of this:—

Rudolph Baensch, a native of Breslau, æt. 36, married, descended from healthy parents, has lost five children; the last and sole surviving one died two months ago from some acute affection with marked head symptoms. He is stated to have been healthy until the commencement of his present illness. His occupation is that of a seaman, but he has not followed his calling for the last six months, having resided at 501 Prune Street, where he has been engaged in bottling beer in a damp, dark cellar.

About three months ago he first contracted a cough, accompanied by a frothy white expectoration, and an occasional sharp stitch in the left side. This has never left him, but has not been sufficiently severe to prevent him from attending to his work; he has lost a considerable amount of flesh, but until very recently his appetite and spirits have been good; for the last two weeks, however, he has been peevish and irritable, though perfectly rational; he has occasionally suffered from headache, which has been more frequent and severe of late; his bowels have been confined. On the 26th of February, 1866, his cough became more violent, frequently eliciting from him cries of pain; the expectoration also became yellowish, and more copious, but at no time was it tinged with blood. He has never during his illness suffered from vomiting. On the 1st of March he took some purgative medicine, which produced two copious healthy evacuations on the following day. On the 3d, feeling much more sick, he retired to bed at about 5 P. M., and soon after became delirious, the delirium being of the mild, wandering type; his appetite, which lately had been capricious, now became voracious; the bowels still constipated, the urine passed freely, and of a deep red colour.

March 5, 1866, 5 P. M. First visit: wandering delirium; attention can be only partially aroused, but no answers could be elicited from him. Heat of surface normal; pulse 90, weak and gaseous; heart sounds clear and sharp; respirations noiseless, feeble but not hurried; no play of *alæ nasi*. On the right side the percussion note of good resonance; the respiratory murmur loud and puerile. On left side, from the third interspace to the base of the lung, the percussion perfectly flat, but in the infra-clavicular space the note was of high pitched tympany, with a well-marked "bruit de pot fêlé." The respiration over the space marked as flat on percussion, was bronchial in character. Under the clavicle large gurgling and bubbling râles were heard, having a metallic resonance. Pectoriloquy also was well marked at this point. Vocal fremitus markedly increased over the whole lower part of the lung.

Tongue coated with a yellowish creamy fur; bowels confined; urine

passed involuntarily; no eruption; the pupils of natural size; eyes not injected; has not complained of headache in any marked degree immediately before the delirium set in; the limbs responded to stimuli perfectly. R.—Whiskey f3ss every three hours; blister to nucha; cold to head; morphia and camphor.

6th, 10 A. M. Collapsed; profound coma; tendency to slip down in bed; urine passed involuntarily; extremities cold; capillary circulation very sluggish; breathing stertorous and interrupted; intervals of many seconds elapsing between some of the respirations; pupils rather small; pulse very feeble, slow, about 90. Increase whiskey to f3j every two hours, alternating with beef essence; turpentine enema; stimulating frictions to extremities. 5 P. M. Heat of surface good; head rather warm; cheeks flushed; pulse 95, feeble; respirations stertorous, 48 per minute, and intermittent; no cough or expectoration; urine still passed involuntarily; bowels confined; power of deglutition much impaired. The left side of the body appeared paralyzed, the hand and arm being rigid and contracted, the leg extended but motionless. The right arm was either moved violently up and down, or else contracted; the right leg was in an almost constant state of motion; the limbs responded but very slowly to stimuli (if at all). The eyes were rolled strongly up and to the right; not glazed; the pupils rather contracted; the eyes appeared insensible to irritation.

The sensibility of the whole body very much impaired; the "tache meningitique" follows but slowly the removal of the finger.

Physical signs remain much the same; large bubbling rales are heard through the right thorax apparently from retained secretions.

Reapplied blister; cold to head; turpentine enema; whiskey f3ss every two hours; beef essence; potas. iodid. gr. x every three hours.

11 A. M. Until twelve last night the movements of the right side of the body continued almost constantly, but after that time he became perfectly quiet, swallowing the stimuli, &c., without much apparent difficulty; the surface was drenched with a warm sweat, the face being much flushed through the night; breathing less stertorous. At 10 A. M., he had a decided convulsion accompanied with opisthotonos. Pulse 138, very weak and compressible; respirations 36, not so irregular as before; although there are occasional intermissions of several seconds, the stertor still exists. The contraction of the left arm has disappeared, but motion seems very imperfect; sensibility and reflex action are abolished. The skin warm and moist; face pale, and covered with drops of sweat; eyes not injected, pupils rather contracted, not responding. Tongue dry and brown; bowels confined; urine retained, about Oiss drawn off of clear deep reddish-yellow colour, sp. gr. 1026, acid, considerable amount of albumen; chlorides deficient; no deposit. Respiratory sounds the same. Heart sounds very feeble. Increase stimuli, &c. Died at 2 P. M.

His wife states that immediately before death he gulped up at least Oj of a thick yellowish matter.

Post-mortem examination twenty-two hours after death.—Body muscular and in good condition. Cadaveric rigidity well marked. The abdominal viscera appeared perfectly healthy, but were most intensely congested.

The heart healthy, no clots; the right lung contained disseminated miliary tubercle, but was crepitant throughout, and bound down by strong old pleuritic adhesions. The left lung also bound down by very firm adhesions; the apex contained a large anfractuous cavity, and a few smaller non-communicating cavities. The lower two-thirds of the lung was per-

fectly packed with yellow tubercle, non-crepitant and dense. The cavities in the apex appeared of old formation; they were lined with a distinct membranous wall and surrounded by condensed lung structure. It seemed probable that the patient had suffered from chronic phthisis for some time, and that the cause of death was a fresh deposition of tubercle throughout both lungs, and upon the brain. No history favouring this view, however, could be obtained.

Brain.—The membranes deeply congested; over the convexity of the cerebrum they were opaque and thickened, while over the cerebellum they appeared to be merely thickened, but perfectly smooth. On *Right Hemisphere* a few granules of large size were found in the fissure of Sylvius, while over the convexity flat yellowish granules were seen through the thickened and opaque membranes. *Left Hemisphere.*—The middle cerebral lobe was much softened, and over the convexity of the cerebrum the membranes were infiltrated, thickened, and studded with minute grayish granules. On drawing the membranes off from the cerebral substance, the veins of the pia mater appeared distended and tortuous; the under surface of the membranes was thickly studded with minute grayish granules. The ventricles contained a very small amount of sanguinolent serum, but their lining membrane appeared perfectly clear and smooth.

Under the microscope the granules from the various parts mentioned presented the characteristic appearance of tubercle.

March 2. Embolism of Renal, Splenic, and Cerebral Arteries.—Dr. HUTCHINSON exhibited the specimens and read the following history of the case from which they were derived; for notes of this case he was indebted to the resident physician at the Episcopal Hospital.

Joseph Hall, aged 30 years, born in England, and formerly a soldier in the British army, was admitted into the medical wards of the hospital, March 2, 1866. Symptoms were not marked at that time: there were slight hebetude of mind, a coated but moist tongue, pale face, slight headache, one or two spots resembling slightly the rose-coloured *taches*, and disappearing under pressure, but no tympanites, abdominal tenderness, gurgling, diarrhoea, nor rales in the chest—the patient had, however, been subject to epistaxis. The history of the case, as obtained from himself, was not satisfactory. His sickness had lasted four weeks, coming on suddenly with vomiting and intense pain in the small of the back, which had been followed by painful cramps in the leg and some difficulty in passing his water. Pressure over the kidneys caused pain, especially on the right side.

His urine was submitted to a chemical and microscopical examination, and found to contain a small quantity of albumen, epithelia from the bladder and pelvis of the kidney, and some crystals of the triple phosphate. There was no dropsy. No change occurred in patient's condition until March 8, and he was up to that time treated as a mild case of typhoid fever.

On the afternoon of that day he was taken with nausea and vomiting, and the cramps in his leg occurred for the first time since his admission. In the evening his symptoms were entirely relieved by the treatment employed.

March 9. Dr. Watson found the patient, at his morning visit, comatose, and was told that he had been so for five hours. The pupils were widely dilated and insensible to light; the respiration was stertorous; pulse 100; in addition to this there was entire paralysis of right side, which was also

subject to clonic spasms, and to the hand appeared very much less warm than the other side, although this was not confirmed by the thermometer.

Dr. Watson, who believed the case to be one of uræmic poisoning, applied cups to the loins, and administered an injection containing Epsom salts and assafoetida.

At 10 A. M. I saw the patient, and then for the first time heard a rough, rasping murmur at the apex of the heart, synchronous with the systole, and communicating a sensible fremitus to the præcordial region. I directed a blister to be applied to the back of the neck, and a free evacuation to be procured from the bowels.

My own diagnosis of the case was embolismus of one of the cerebral arteries, and I was led to form that opinion by the grave cerebral symptoms present—the comatose condition, hemiplegia, and stertorous respiration; the age and appearance of the patient almost excluding the idea of apoplexy. I thought there was no sufficient reason to entertain the view of uræmia—there had been no suppression of urine, and the quantity of albumen had always been small.

March 10. The remedies employed having failed to produce a motion, recourse was had to croton oil, which brought away a large quantity of feces. The pulse being full and tense, the patient was bled from the temporal artery to the extent of fl. oz. v.

Patient died at 6 P. M.

The *autopsy* was made eighteen hours after death.

In removing the brain the arteries at the base were torn, and no embolus could be found. The membranes were slightly congested; the ventricles contained a slight amount of serum; the brain substance was carefully examined, but nothing abnormal was discovered.

The lungs were healthy, with the exception that in the right lung were found distinctly circumscribed congested points at the apex and back of upper lobe. The mitral valve of the heart was insufficient, and covered with vegetations about which the fibrin of the blood had coagulated; the other valves were healthy. The liver was healthy. The kidneys were normal in size, but their section exhibited pyramidal spaces where the colour of the kidney had changed to a brownish-yellow; these were found in by far the greater number in the right kidney. The same condition was found to exist in the spleen. Some of the spots were evidently of more recent origin than others.

A careful dissection revealed a clot in the branch of the renal artery supplying the largest of these spaces in one of the kidneys.

The urine found in the bladder was examined, but, although it was found to contain albumen in somewhat greater quantity than before, and abundance of epithelial cells, no distinctly-marked tube-casts were found.

A microscopic examination of the kidneys and spleen showed the tissue to be in a condition of retrograde metamorphosis—the cells of the kidneys being very granular and containing some oil; besides which there was found a large quantity of free oil and granules in the field of the microscope.

Although no clot could be found in the arteries, I feel convinced that a more careful examination, either of the arteries at the base, or of the internal carotids or vertebræ, would have revealed the presence of an embolus. The condition of the spleen and kidneys was unmistakably due to occlusion of some of the smaller arteries, and there is no other view which will

satisfactorily explain the coma and paralysis, as the amount of congestion and effusion was not sufficient to have caused them.

It is somewhat singular that the majority, if not all, of the reported cases of embolismus of the arteries of the brain have occurred on the left side, giving rise to paralysis of the right side—a condition which was present in our case.

The intense pain in the loins, of which patient complained, occurred probably at the time of the plugging of the branches of the renal arteries.

In the case which was reported to the Society by myself, April 23, 1862, and published in the *Amer. Jour. Med. Sciences*, October, 1863, in which embolismus of the iliac artery had occurred, the excruciating pain to which it gave rise was one of the earliest and most diagnostic symptoms.

April 11th. Hemorrhagic Erosion of Gastric Mucous Membrane.—Dr. WM. PEPPER presented the specimens with the following history:—

Esau Clowney, aged 53 years, admitted to Pennsylvania Hospital, March 29, 1866, with sloughing of the skin and cellular tissues on the inside and outside of right knee-joint—resulting from a contusion received two weeks previously, but which he had not allowed to prevent him from continuing work. He was placed upon stimulus, nourishing diet, iron and quinia, and the wound dressed with creasote. Extensive burrowing, however, ensued; the tissues of the thigh being undermined and sloughing. The discharge was profuse, and his strength rapidly gave way, his pulse becoming feeble and frequent.

April 7th. At 10 A. M. he had a severe chill followed by profuse sweating, and on the following day a slight chill, followed by moderate sweating. After this he had no distinct chill, but sweated profusely toward night; the discharge remained very free, but became horribly fetid and grumous; rapid emaciation ensued, with hebetude, colliquative sweats, and hiccough, and he died about noon of April 11th, about four weeks after reception of the injury.

At the *post-mortem*, two and a half hours after death, no metastatic abscesses were found. The blood, however, was much disintegrated, bistre-coloured, with excess of white corpuscles and crenation, and pallor of the red globules.

The mucous membrane of the stomach was thin, with small patches of hemorrhagic erosion, forming superficial ulcers with dark reddish-black bases. These ulcers varied from the size of a split pea to half an inch in diameter. The dark matter forming their base contained hematin in abundance, both as crystals and granules, a few altered blood-corpuscles, cells deeply stained, fragments of glands also stained with hematin, granular matter, and some free oil. The other organs presented nothing abnormal.

April 25th. Fracture of Ribs, Arm, Leg, and Pelvis from a Fall.—Dr. WM. PEPPER presented the specimens, and read their history as follows:—

Abby Brown, aged 65, widow, was admitted to Pennsylvania Hospital (woman's surgical ward) at 8.45 P. M., April 19, 1866. She has been childish for several years, and has been in the habit of drinking, though not to any great excess, for about the same period. To-day she had drunk several times, so that her daughter noticed some change in her manner—but it could not be said that she was intoxicated. The daughter, who habitually nursed her, left her about twenty minutes before she was found on the pave-

ment below, so that it is not known whether she fell from the window or intentionally jumped out. She was found curled up in a heap, lying on the right side, within a few inches of the curb-stone. The window from which she fell was about twelve or fifteen feet from the ground.

On admission she was completely unconscious. There was some blood upon head, and a soft fluctuating tumour over left eyebrow, with lacerated wound of scalp, evidently from effusion of blood beneath the scalp. There was no other evidence of injury to skull, neither was there any discharge from either ear, epistaxis, or hemorrhage into the fauces. The left pupil was dilated, slightly irregular in form, and wholly insensible; the right pupil, also insensible, was much contracted. There was no orbital ecchymosis. The face was much drawn to the right, and in respiration the left cheek alone flapped very markedly, indicating complete paralysis of the buccinator of that side. The position of the tongue seemed to be in the mesial line, but fallen forward between the teeth.

She made no movement of head or any other part of body. And it was impossible by any ordinary stimulus to arouse reflex action of any muscle. Electro-muscular sensibility was entirely gone, but electro-muscular contractibility was not entirely absent. There was, however, this peculiarity about it, that upon the right side of the body, from the head down, the muscles responded quite forcibly to the galvanic stimulus, although in a less degree than in health. On the left side, the muscles of the face responded fairly, although much less strongly than those of right side. The muscles of left arm gave a comparatively much more feeble response: and it was with great difficulty, and only by using most powerful currents, that the least contraction of any muscle of the left lower extremity could be produced. The only muscle in fact which responded at all was the external hamstring muscle. The temperature of the extremities was reduced. No involuntary discharges had taken place. The pulse was regular, though somewhat large and feeble, and 90 in minute. Respiration 18 in minute, to a great degree diaphragmatic. Abdomen moderately distended.

In addition to the injury of the skull, above mentioned, she had also sustained a fracture of several of the upper ribs of left side, which seemed complicated with a slight wound of lung, as there was some emphysema in the corresponding subclavicular space.

There was also a Colles' fracture of the left radius, a fracture of both bones of the right leg in lower fifth just above the malleoli; and finally a fracture of the left side of the pelvis. By pressing the anterior superior spinous processes of the iliac bones together, it was easy to perceive greatly increased mobility with distinct crepitus, apparently from a fracture running obliquely from above downwards and from before backwards, involving the posterior part of the ilium, and the ischium.

The fractured bones were adjusted and placed in splints—but no further treatment was adopted.

Deglutition was barely possible for some hours after admission, but by 8 A. M., April 20, we succeeded in getting her to swallow about Oss of wine whey in course of several hours. The symptoms remained very much the same, the surface, however, becoming much warmer during night, so that by 10 A. M. there was abnormal heat of skin. The pulse became quickened, and smaller, and more feeble; at 10 A. M. it was 128. The respirations steadily grew more and more gasping, laborious, and diaphragmatic.

The difference between the pupils remained, but the left was less dilated

than on admission. Once or twice she made slight movements with the fingers of the right hand. She vomited once or twice toward morning, and, according to her daughter's statement, the matters vomited contained blood. She passed both urine and feces involuntarily. Profound unconsciousness, absence of voluntary and reflex movements, slight distortion of face to the right, with paralysis of buccinators, especially marked on left side, characterized the case until the end. Death occurred at 4.35 P. M., April 20, within twenty-one hours, at the outside, from reception of the injury.

Post-mortem twenty-two hours after death. *Head.*—Scalp discoloured and a tumour around the lacerated wound over left eyebrow, with considerable ecchymosis of pericranium. The skull was bared for about the size of a split pea, but no fracture of external table existed. Upon removing the calvaria, most extensive meningeal apoplexy was found. This was most marked on left side, in the neighbourhood of the seat of injury, but extended over the convexity of both lobes, and posteriorly over the cerebellum and medulla oblongata. The blood was effused into the subarachnoid space, and was still fluid. There was no unusual amount of fluid in ventricle, nor any serous or sanguinolent effusion at base of brain. No fracture existed of any portion of the skull. It should be mentioned in this connection that after death several ounces of dark grumous, apparently bloody fluid ran from nostrils.

Thorax.—Right lung free from adhesions and healthy. The left lung was also free from adhesions, and presented only a small tear of its pleural investment, rather than a true wound of its parenchyma.

Upon examining the ribs of this side, they were all found to be fractured in two places, with the exception of the last two, which were broken in but one point. These fractures were seated, the one anterior and the other posterior to the arches of the ribs. The slight wound of lung appeared to have been produced by one of the extremities of the fifth rib. The pleural cavity contained no blood. The heart was in every respect healthy.

Abdomen.—Stomach distended, but healthy; liver, spleen, kidneys, and pancreas presented no morbid appearances.

In examining the parts surrounding the left side of the pelvis, there was extensive hemorrhage under the peritoneum, infiltrating the iliac and psoas muscle of that side, and dissecting forward in the abdominal wall. There was, however, no blood in the peritoneal cavity, nor any wound of that membrane. The gluteal muscles were also much ecchymosed, and in several places the muscular structure was lacerated by fragments of the pelvis.

The principal amount of injury to the pelvis was on the left side, which had sustained a comminuted fracture. The general direction of the fracture was from above downwards with a slight inclination backwards, running from the crest of the ilium to the ischiatic notch. The posterior part of the ilium was broken into three pieces, and the upper rim of the ischiatic notch was split off, so as to form a falciform process of bone, very sharp at end. This, which was attached to the largest fragment of the ilium, was so displaced as to have lacerated the great sciatic nerve as it emerges from the pelvis. The nerve in one place was fully half divided, and below this for the extent of an inch and a half was extensively lacerated.

In addition to this, there was a simple fracture of both the transverse and horizontal rami of the right os pubis. There was but little displacement from the latter fracture, and a trifling amount of ecchymosis in the neighbouring tissues.

Acute Malignant Disease, affecting the Stomach, Mesenteric Glands, Lungs, Liver, and Bronchial Glands.—DR. GEO. PEPPER exhibited the specimens and read the following history:—

Jacob Johns, æt. 56, black, married, healthy parents, of very intemperate habits, but has enjoyed excellent health, with the exception of an attack of typhoid fever ten years ago, until the 3d of March, 1866, when, after a hard day's work as stevedore, he first complained of a general feeling of weakness and vertigo; he felt no pain at that time, or in fact any symptom other than those mentioned. Since that evening he has not left his house, but was treated there by a neighbouring physician for some time. No symptoms developed themselves until quite recently, save that about six days after the first seizure he vomited once or twice, apparently only the contents of the stomach, and that his bowels, which in health were very regular, became constipated. About two weeks ago he first noticed a pain, referred to the epigastrium, which has gradually become more and more severe, and is described as "burning, gnawing, and shooting" in character; his appetite has been gradually failing, and his sleep poor, although he lies in a dull soporose condition all day, rarely speaking except when addressed, but then always returning rational and intelligent answers. Has had no vomiting, save that one spell referred to, but almost constant nausea. The reception of food into the stomach causes an increase of the epigastric pain.

April 11th. Very much emaciated (his wife and friends state that although never stout, he was not by any means thin, and a very muscular and well-developed man); skin of body of normal temperature; extremities cold; skin very harsh and dry; very marked arcus senilis; sight good; tongue coated with a thick yellowish-white coat, dry in centre; gums firm and of good colour. No difficulty in deglutition; no cough, no abnormal respiratory phenomena in lungs; heart sounds very feeble and faint, no murmurs, apex beat below and to the left of normal position; chest unusually resonant; pulse 96, feeble and compressible; respirations 15, regular and deep. Hepatic dulness not increased; an ill defined dulness to right of epigastrium; no tumour perceptible; percussion over the abdomen everywhere resonant. Strong pulsation of abdominal aorta, as also of both femorals; no bruit, however, can be detected. Slight tenderness over the abdomen, and a faint friction-like sensation communicated to the hand placed on its surface, also a sound resembling fine friction very closely heard over the whole surface upon the application of a double stethoscope. Bowels confined; urine free, of normal appearance, depositing a faint clond. R. Potass. iodid. gr. x, tinct. gentian comp. fʒj, aquæ fʒij, thrice daily. Ol. morrhue fʒij, thrice daily. Also R. Unguent. belladonnæ, unguent. iodin. comp. āā ʒss. Apply over whole surface of abdomen. Regulate the bowels by ol. ricini—good nourishment.

12th. More comfortable, extremities warm, retained medicines and nourishment very well; pain in abdomen relieved by the application. Dozes most of his time; appetite still totally absent; bowels confined; continue treatment.

14th. Weaker but more comfortable; less pain; bowels opened twice freely by the oil; appetite still very poor; belly scaphoid; pulsations of arteries very distinct. Increase stimuli.

16th. Emaciating and growing weaker; skin harsh, dry, and cool; tongue less coated; bowels quiet; urine free; pulse 96; respiration 18; vomited a dark brownish matter, ropy, and containing masses of dark

brown colour, last evening. Has shown no tendency to it since. Friction over abdomen not felt or heard with the unaided ear; epigastric dullness more marked, it seems continuous with hepatic dullness. Urine, sp. gr. 1022, acid, no albumen, no deposit. Continue treatment.

21st. Continued in the same condition, except that he has grown much more feeble and emaciated. He has refused all nourishment and medicine for the last two days; nutritious enemata were ordered, but neglected; has had two attacks of vomiting, of essentially the same character as the preceding attack.

He died at 8½ A. M. to-day; apparently from the exhaustion caused by a severe attack of vomiting of the same grumous fluid.

Post-mortem eight hours after death.—Body greatly emaciated, cadaveric rigidity well-marked. Brain and cord were not examined. Lungs—the right lung bound down by very firm old adhesions, and contained at apex a number of masses varying in size from one-tenth to one-fourth inch in diameter, of a pale yellowish colour and quite firm and resisting. The remainder of the lung as well as the whole of the left one was healthy and crepitant throughout, although pale and anæmic. The bronchial glands were greatly enlarged, and on section presented a pale yellow colour varied by large patches of melanotic deposit.

The heart was healthy; spleen healthy, but very small; kidneys normal, but very pale.

Liver of about the usual size, intensely congested, and contained a considerable number of small yellowish nodules varying greatly in size, the largest being about the size of a pea. These were situated both superficially and scattered throughout the gland structure. The gall bladder contained a small amount of healthy looking bile.

Stomach large; distended with the same grumous fluid which had been vomited during life. The mucous membrane appeared healthy everywhere except at the pyloric extremity, where, in addition to an entire destruction of the mucous membrane, there was an almost complete occlusion of the orifice by a scirrhous mass which entirely surrounded it. The stricture was so close as to admit with difficulty the passage of a small bougie; pancreas healthy.

Mesenteric glands were much enlarged, some of the larger being the size of walnuts. The glands of the mesocolon and mesorectum were but slightly enlarged.

Intestines slightly contracted, but otherwise apparently healthy; although not opened. Peritoneum smooth over whole extent.

Microscopic examination.—The matter taken from the stomach consisted of blood-globules, granular cells, clearing up on the addition of acetic acid with free nuclei; granular matter, and epithelium apparently the remains of the destroyed mucous membrane. The mass surrounding the pylorus consisted of free nuclei with nucleoli; fusiform cells of large size with one and two nuclei, a few large caudate cells with nuclei and nucleoli, the whole contained in fibrous stroma. The masses from the liver contained cloudy hepatic cells; indistinct cells with nuclei and nucleoli, granular matter, &c. The mesenteric glands seemed to consist entirely of numberless free nuclei with nucleoli (about the size of blood-corpuscles). The enlarged bronchial glands presented indistinct cells with nuclei and nucleoli, much granular matter and free nuclei. The masses at the apex of the right lung consisted of large mother cells, with contained cells with

nuclei and nucleoli; free nuclei with nucleoli; large fusiform cells with one and two nuclei and granular matter.

May 9th. Punctured Wound of Orbit—traversing the orbit and entering brain. *Death from hemorrhage into skull.*—Dr. WM. PEPPER exhibited the specimen and gave the following history :—

Nellie Taylor, æt. about 18, a prostitute by profession, was carried to Pennsylvania Hospital, April 25, 1866, at about 10½ P.M. Half a hour previously, whilst at corner of Sixth and Middle Alley, she attacked three negresses, who were passing and provoked her by some remark. A young girl who was with her at the time states that she followed the women to the middle of the street, when blows were interchanged, and the patient immediately returned to her side saying that her eye was "coming to pieces." Her companion also noticed slight twitchings of the extremities. They walked together about a half-square, when the patient sank upon her knees, and then fell upon the pavement. She became at the same time wholly unconscious, and had not spoken again.

Upon admission, her condition was as follows: A wound, about half an inch long, and apparently inflicted by a sharp-pointed, narrow-bladed knife, was found over right eye a little to the outside of the internal canthus. A probe introduced into this readily detected that the rim of the orbit was bared and a small fragment of bone chipped off. From this point the probe glided off a considerable distance in the direction of the roof of the orbit, but it was difficult to say whether it passed along the under surface of the roof or entered the skull through a small orifice in the frontal bone. There had been very little hemorrhage externally. There was already some ecchymosis of the upper eyelid, but no discoloration whatever of subconjunctival cellular tissue. The pupils were moderately dilated, the right one more so than the left, and entirely insensible. The pulse was 60 in the minute; respiration 32, regular, though jerking. There was no evidence of paralysis of any part of the body or face, but, on the contrary, the extremities were in a state of violent spasmodic convulsive movement with a strong tendency to carpo-pedal contraction. No involuntary discharges had taken place, but within half an hour after admission she vomited freely with considerable effort. Deglutition was impossible. A large blister was applied to back of the neck, and a turpentine enema administered, which was retained.

April 26, 1866. 10 A.M. Her condition through the night has remained much the same. The vomiting has not recurred, but there has been involuntary discharge of urine. The convulsive movements have continued so violently that it was necessary to tie her legs. This morning her unconsciousness remains profound, it being impossible to arouse her in the slightest degree. The head and feet are now fixed in marked carpo-pedal contraction, and yet the arms and legs are frequently, and to all appearance symmetrically, convulsed. These movements consist in adduction and inward rotation of these members. There is at the same time some rigidity of the arms and legs. Reflex movements can be aroused in all parts of the body, though less readily than in health.

There is great ecchymosis of the eyelids, but not a trace of subconjunctival hemorrhage. The pupils are both dilated, the right one more so than the left, and insensible to light; the eyeballs are in a state of constant oscillation. There has been no hemorrhage or discharge of brain substance from external wound. The pulse has been up to 132, and is much smaller; the

respirations are 48 a minute, and the temperature of the body, as measured in left axilla, 103° .

6 P. M. Pulse 148 in a minute; respirations 34; temperature in left axilla $102\frac{3}{8}^{\circ}$. Her condition has remained very much the same, save the gradual failure in powers of life and the cessation of convulsive movements. There is now only an occasional twitch of the extremities, which still continue in a state of carpo-pedal contraction. Reflex movements have almost entirely disappeared, though it is still possible to arouse some muscular contraction. Her urine and feces have both passed involuntarily. Deglutition is almost impossible. During the day, an unusual modification of respiration has come on somewhat of this character. The respirations are principally abdominal, to judge from the very great elevation of the abdominal walls with great lateral movement of the lower part of the thorax. Upon closer examination, however, it was noticed that during *inspiration* there was violent contraction of both the sterno-cleido-mastoid and trapezius muscles with a moderate elevation movement of thorax; slight expansion of upper part of thorax, but considerable lateral expansion of the base of the thorax accompanied by *retraction* of the abdomen. During *expiration*, on the other hand, the base of the thorax contracted, the entire thorax descended, and the abdomen was markedly *elevated*. During this expiratory act, by placing the fingers under the margin of the ribs, a violent spasmodic contraction of the diaphragm was readily detected. There was at this time no evidence of imperfect aëration of the blood. She constantly, however, expels a tenacious froth from her mouth during expiration.

27th, 10 A. M. Pulse now beats 150 in a minute; the respirations are 57; the temperature in left axilla $104\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. During the night the respirations have continued of the same character, though steadily becoming more gasping and labored. There is marked ecchymosis of skin around right orbit, but not a trace of subconjunctival hemorrhage. Neither is there any discharge from ears or hemorrhage into pharynx. There is constant oscillation of the eyeballs with dilatation of the pupils, the right one being still rather the more dilated. There has been no recurrence of vomiting. Urine passes involuntarily. There are now marked cyanotic symptoms; the lips and extremities being livid, and the loud snoring râles throughout the chest indicating great accumulation of secretion in the air-passages. The skin is bathed in sweat, and the whole surface presents the condition of marked cutis anserina. The respirations are now stertorous, and accompanied by flapping of both cheeks. There is complete cessation of all movements of the extremities, and it is impossible to arouse any reflex actions.

The parts over which the bandage was applied to restrain her legs are deeply ecchymosed and excoriated. Death occurred at 12 M., 38 hours after injury, without any further phenomena.

Post-mortem four hours after death.—Marked rigor mortis. Spine not examined.

Head.—The scalp was dissected up, and the knife was found to have struck upon the orbital ridge of frontal bone near the right inner canthus, to have clipped a small piece of bone off, and thence to have been deflected so as to traverse the orbit in a direction backwards, outwards, and very slightly downwards, entering the skull through the posterior wall of the orbit, external to the optic foramen, and between the greater and lesser wings of the sphenoid bone. The blade, which must have been a narrow and rather long one, then entered the anterior part of the middle lobe of the right

hemisphere, penetrating to the depth of at least one inch. In its passage through the orbit, it had kept close to the roof of the orbit, and consequently had avoided injuring any of the tunics of the eye or the optic nerve. There was a moderate degree of infiltration of the fat and connective tissue at the posterior part of the orbit, but no considerable hemorrhage. In piercing the meninges of the brain, it had opened a large vein, so that a large clot was found compressing the superior and external portions of the anterior and middle lobes, and, in addition, a large amount of blood was found to have followed the lower face of the middle lobe, and found its way under the tentorium, thus compressing the structures at the base of the brain. There was no unusual amount of fluid in the ventricles. The wound of the middle lobe was parallel to the roof of the hippocampus major, and separated from that cavity by merely a thin layer of brain substance. No blood, however, had entered the right ventricle. The brain substance was considerably lacerated and broken down around the wound, forming a small cavity filled with grumous blood.

The *Skull*, probably from her youth, presented scarcely a trace of frontal sinuses.

Thorax.—The blood throughout the body was dark, and formed, soon after escape from vessels, large soft dark clots.

The *Heart* was distended, especially on right side, with dark blood mixed with soft currant-jelly clots. Healthy in structure. Very little pericardial effusion. It was somewhat dislocated by tight-lacing.

Lungs deeply congested throughout. No pleuritic adhesions or effusion.

Abdomen.—Liver large, but much distorted by tight-lacing, being much increased in its vertical diameter.

This organ, as well as the spleen and kidneys, was deeply congested.

Uterus.—Fallopian tubes and ovaries were also intensely congested, the Fallopian tubes in particular being turgid with blood and of a deep purple colour, evidently from chronic congestion resulting from the assiduous practice of her vocation.

May 23d. Penetrating Wound of Abdomen, traversing both walls of Stomach and the left Kidney. Death from hemorrhage in 4½ hours.—Dr. WM. PEPPER presented the specimen and gave the following history of the case:—

Thomas Moultrie, admitted to Pennsylvania Hospital at five P. M., November 21st, 1865, in a state of profound collapse. About half an hour previously he had been stabbed with a sheath-knife having a blade at least eight inches long. The blow was given as the men stood facing each other, the knife entering the body on the line of the nipple in the seventh interspace, directed almost immediately backward. The wound bled freely externally, and soon after its reception he vomited a large quantity of undigested alimentary matter with much liquid blood. On admission, he presented all the symptoms of severe internal hemorrhage; the surface cold and moist; pulse very small and feeble, respirations irregular and sighing; frequent jactitation, with sunken features. The external wound gaped quite widely, and, at each effort at emesis, gas, blood, and some alimentary matter were forced out. The blood vomited was principally fluid. His respirations were rapid, shallow, and gasping, the diaphragmatic element impaired, but not extinct. The heart's action was feeble, frequent, and its sound almost inaudible. The pulmonary resonance was good; the stomatic tympanitic sound was found altered, having much less volume

than in ordinary empty condition of the organ, and high up under the ribs. Percussion note over lower part of abdomen was humoric up to line of umbilicus. There was considerable thirst. He was freely stimulated by means of rectum, and also took morph. sulph. gr. j; but soon after admission he sank into a condition of stupor, from which it was difficult to rouse him to answer questions, and which was broken only by occasional convulsive movements, or by spells of hæmatemesis, of which five or six occurred. His pulse soon became extinct at the extremities. No discharge of either urine or pus occurred. The countenance was hippocratic, the surface cold and damp, and death occurred quietly at 9 P. M., $4\frac{1}{2}$ hours after the reception of the wound.

Post-mortem, thirteen hours after death.—Moderate rigor mortis. *Brain* presented no serous effusion either into ventricles or around base; nor did it show any abnormal condition whatever in regard to its vessels.

Heart.—There were about two ounces of pericardial effusion. The heart was quite firmly contracted, containing a moderate quantity of unnaturally fluid blood, and no firm clots. The knife had not entered pericardial cavity.

Abdomen.—*Liver* appeared somewhat enlarged and extended well over into left hypochondrium, but had escaped injury.

Stomach was found high up under ribs, only slightly distended, but still rotated upwards, as after a full meal, so that the knife had entered its anterior wall near the greater curvature, and had traversed the organ, emerging at a point much nearer the lesser curvature. The wounds were about five-eighths of an inch long, the edges shelving, with very little protrusion of the mucous membrane. It contained some alimentary matter, undigested, and fluid and clotted blood.

The intestines were moderately distended; the colon contained a large quantity of feces, the small intestine contained all the results of digestion in its various stages, but in no part was there any blood.

The left kidney was also penetrated by the knife, toward its superior extremity; the anterior wound being angular, whilst the posterior was simply linear. There was considerable ecchymosis of the connective tissue surrounding it. The urine was not examined. The abdominal cavity contained a large quantity of fluid blood, which had gravitated somewhat into the pelvis, but was still found in all parts among the folds of the mesentery. There was a nick in the head of the eleventh rib. The course of the knife therefore was to enter between the seventh and eighth ribs in a direction almost directly backwards, penetrating the stomach and the left kidney, and expending the little remaining force on the head of the eleventh rib.

Gall-Stone of Cholesterine extracted from the Rectum during Life.
—Dr. S. W. MITCHELL presented the specimen with the following history and remarks:—

On the early morning of February 1st, 1866, I was asked to see a lady, æt. 69, who was suffering with vomiting and colic. Her previous history was as follows: Until about eight years ago she had enjoyed consummate health, excepting that she had now and then, perhaps twice a year, attacks of bilious colic, with pain in the right hypochondrium, and vomiting. I do not think that any of her colics were so violent as I have seen them in others, if we omit one which took place about eight years back, and was for a long time the last. It was extremely severe, but neither after this nor the former attacks had she any noticeable jaundice. Again, about three

years ago, my patient had a very violent bilious colic, with no marked jaundice, but followed by much prostration. In all of these illnesses I attended her. In no case had she high febrile symptoms, a point to be recalled in connection with her after history. Between the date of the attack in 1863, and that of her final sickness, she was uncommonly well: a rather spare, fresh-looking, energetic person, capable of enduring great fatigue, and, excepting some slight functional troubles unconnected with digestion, in entire health of body and mind.

At one P. M., February 1, 1866, she eat a lunch of corned beef and bread and butter, with a glass of wine, and immediately after went out, attended to some business, and returning at six P. M., was seized with nausea and vomiting, which continued up to the time of my visit, three A. M., next day. The matters cast up were undigested food, and then yellowish mucus smelling faintly of sulphuretted hydrogen. This odour disappeared after I used creasote water in drachm doses; but neither this agent nor any other abated the vomiting until the afternoon of February 2d, when it moderated, and was never afterwards so violent or so frequent. The pain with which her attack began was not fixed; somewhat later in the case it occupied the region of the small intestines. As I kept no notes at the time, I am unable to give her history, day by day; but its prominent features are clear in my memory, and these I shall state.

Her sickness began on February 1st; it ended in death at ten A. M., February 11th. The vomiting, after the second day, consisted merely of regurgitation of food, and there was no retching. During the last four or five days of her life that symptom was unimportant. Her bowels were obstinately bound, so that she had no passage until the sixth day, despite the use of calomel in eight grain doses, croton oil, other milder agents, and numerous injections. They were opened at length by a full dose of castor oil, and were at the close so loose as to need opium suppositories. Throughout, there was a moderate amount of tympanites. It was certainly never extreme. During the first few days she passed her water involuntarily; later in the case, and up to the end, it required to be removed by catheter. It contained no albumen.

The circulation was feeble throughout, and as she had a well-marked arcus senilis and a weak cardiac impulse, I suspected that a portion of her feebleness might be due to a fatty heart.

The treatment was chiefly sustaining, and for several days she was nourished and stimulated by rectal injections, until the stomach became able to endure small amounts of food.

On the seventh day a rectal catheter was introduced to relieve the bowels of gas. It struck a hard body which was withdrawn by a forceps, and proved to be a large gall-stone. How long it had been in this position I cannot say, probably only since the passage, within which period of twenty-four hours she had had tenesmus and irritation of the rectum. The most remarkable feature of this illness was the mode in which she twice lost her strength, so as to be despaired of, and again revived. On the first occasion, which preceded the removal of the stone, she became pulseless in one wrist. The heart beat was barely perceptible in the other, and numbered 150. She was cold to the knees, and wandering in mind, yet came out of this state so far, spontaneously, as to make us renew the use of the stimulants we had dropped in despair. She finally died from asthenia without pain or struggle.

The absence of notes has compelled me to state the case as I have done.

It may be thus summed up : An attack of putrefactive vomiting and colic ; obstinate constipation ; pain reduced by second day ; bowels moderately moved on sixth day ; stomach less and less irritable ; tendency to sink ; repeated rallies ; stone removed from rectum on seventh day ; death apparently from want of cardiac power on the tenth day.

At first I diagnosed the disease as an attack of indigestion, with putrefactive state of contents of stomach. I supposed that these conditions accounted for the congestion of this organ which I presumed to exist, while the extreme effects produced by the vomiting I referred to the fact that the heart was probably fatty and inefficient as a circulating power.

I set aside as false the idea of hernia or of absolute obstruction, for, as to the first, there was no rupture ; and as to the latter, the pain was not great enough ; nor was the tympanites and tenderness such as to warrant this belief.

When the stone was removed I, of course, altered my opinion. I could not conceive that this large mass had been passed through the gall-bladder during this attack, and I therefore was driven to suppose, either that it had escaped long before from the gall-ducts, when small, and had increased in size in the intestines, or that it had at a former period ulcerated a path into the duodenum, and remained without increase of bulk in some part of the intestinal canal for a period of time whose length I could hardly suspect.

Twenty hours after death I made the autopsy, whose results were witnessed by my friend Dr. Packard. I desired first to see where the calculus had lodged during its stay in the intestines. I therefore examined the canal from the rectum to the bile-duct with unusual care. The curve of the duodenum was a little thickened as if by submucous deposit. It was also gray and black in spots, and contained points which were more vascular than elsewhere. The rest of the intestines was healthy, and contained a good deal of thin fecal matter. In the great intestine it was more firm, but nowhere very solid or impacted. The stomach was intensely congested, and its membranes were very dark and grayish in spots, especially along the greater curve. There was no ulcer, and there were no cicatrices of old ulcers. The liver was of the usual size. The fissure commonly occupied by the gall-bladder was bridged over with a mass of dense white membrane as hard as cartilage. Through it ran a ragged, tortuous passage the size of a goose quill, which opened into the duodenum. This canal was black, rough, irregular, and dotted with minute bits of cholesteroline and pigment. Into it opened the hepatic duct, and through it the bile reached the intestine. The opening into the duodenum was about three lines wide. It was a strong open ring of tissue, with firm everted lips, and from it the ducts narrowed as they left the intestine. Four lines of white tint a half inch long, and a little elevated above the intestinal surface, ran outwards from this opening, and seemed to me to indicate the former existence of a tear at the places so marked.

Directly above the duct the upper surface of the liver and the fissure for the gall-bladder gave evidence of ancient and extensive inflammation which had thickened the capsule of Glisson at these parts to a quarter of an inch at least. Elsewhere the liver was healthy.

The lungs were singularly free even from old adhesions. The heart was thin and very largely metamorphosed into fat. The kidneys were normal, but the left of nearly twice the size of its fellow. All the other abdominal organs were free from disease. The nervous system was not inspected.

The stone, which I have had sawed, is nearly pure cholesterine, with the usual pigment nucleus in this case double. It has no external deposit to mark its stay in the intestines, nor was it in the least eroded by their juices.

The following seems to me to be a fair theory of the case: A calculus formed in the gall-bladder and excited there an inflammation which produced adhesions to the duodenum and gradually brought the two parts into close relation. Meanwhile occurred the frequent colics of past years, occasioned by the efforts to pass the stone or by passage of smaller calculi. At all events we must suppose some such condition and some such relief, for at no time had she well-marked jaundice. Finally, when the stone had partly ulcerated through the wall of the intestine, some sudden and violent act of vomiting drove the calculus into the duodenum, effecting the tear whose scars were seen to radiate from the mouth of the open canal. The after changes consisted in the narrowing and complete atrophy of the gall-bladder and in the partial healing of the torn mucous membrane.

It appears to me that this theory accounts for all the circumstances of this remarkable case, of which not the least notable feature was the long sojourn of the stone in the intestines. It must have entered them three or eight years ago, no other attacks save such as happened at these dates having been severe enough to be the results of the rupture of the duodenal wall.

Where the stone rested in the bowel I cannot say. Perhaps in the curve of the duodenum at the point where I noticed thickening, precisely at the elbow in the intestine. In fact the symptoms of obstruction could only have been occasioned by temporary stoppages in the small intestines, so that it must have been high up the bowel.

From the appearance of the stone I do not think it grew any while in the bowels, and the cicatrix of the tear showed that this must have been made by a stone as large as this one. Lastly, as regards the illness which occasioned the escape the following view seems tenable: Some accident having started the stone on its way down the intestines, its arrest here and there would account for all of the symptoms, the pain, the constipation, the checked digestion, and the vomiting of thin, ill-smelling substances at intervals.

June 27th. Gunshot Wound of Shoulder; Fracture of Scapula; Infiltration of Muscles of Back; Sudden Death.—Dr. WM. PEPPER exhibited the specimen and gave the history of the case.

John Mealy, æt. 30, admitted to Pennsylvania Hospital June 2, 1866. A few hours before admission he was wounded in the left shoulder by a wad discharged from a musket, the load containing no ball.

The wad as removed from the wound was about the size of an English walnut; and was found to have penetrated the muscles over the scapula, fracturing and comminuting that bone, and partially imbedding itself beneath the body of the scapula, so that but one-half of the wad could be removed at the time of admission.

The man's condition remained quite good for several days, but the discharge from the wound became sanious and offensive, and burrowed more under scapular muscles; and the whole left side of the thorax, anteriorly and posteriorly, became highly emphysematous, although there was no evidence of the thorax being wounded.

Towards the close of the first week, he showed signs of exhaustion from

the drain, but he had evinced no symptom which excited alarm, when on the ninth day he died suddenly without having made any unusual exertion. His death was preceded for a few minutes by symptoms of great oppression.

Post-mortem three hours after death. Brain.—Parts of meninges were somewhat congested, apparently more so on right side than the left; there was slight effusion in ventricles.

Thorax and lungs were congested and œdematous posteriorly, but presented no wound nor any evidence of traumatic pneumonia. There were a few old adhesions on right side, and on left evidences of marked pleurisy in the form of strong adhesions and a layer of false membrane, œdematous and flesh coloured, extending from spine almost to anterior mediastinum over the whole inferior lobe. There was no serous effusion nor any very marked congestion of the pleura, but the appearances of the false membrane seemed to indicate a somewhat recent attack of membranous pleurisy. There was, however, not the slightest wound of the thoracic cavity detectable.

The heart was healthy in structure, but was distended with clots. On the right side these were soft and dark and evidently of recent post-mortem formation, whilst the clot contained in the left cavities of the heart was whitish and firm, and extended from the ventricle, where it was firmly attached to the chordæ tendinæ and muscular fasciculi into both the auricle and aorta, so as to seriously impede the proper action of their valves.

The abdominal viscera appeared healthy.

The tissues in the neighbourhood of the wound were infiltrated with serous pus, but there was no such decomposition, apparently, as would account for the extensive emphysema of the left side of the thorax which was noticed during the last days of life. The remaining half of the wad was found imbedded beneath the scapula. The fracture of the scapula involved the body of the bone both below and above the spine, and was radiating and comminuted in character.

The points of the case which appear most worthy of observation are:—

1st. The nature of the missile in connection with the extensive injury to the soft parts and bone.

2d. The cause of the emphysema, in the absence of any wound of the lung.

3d. The cause of death, and the medico-legal inquiry which might be based upon the occurrence of sudden death in the progress of a case of apparently not serious prognosis.

REVIEWS.

ART. XVII.—*Parturition and its Difficulties. With Clinical Illustrations and Statistics of 13,783 Deliveries.* By JOHN HALL DAVIS, M.D., F.R.C.P., &c. Second edition revised and enlarged. 12mo. pp. 354. London: Robt. Hardwick, 1865.

THE first edition of this work by Dr. Davis appears to have received so much attention as to induce him to prepare a second revised and enlarged one. Perhaps, therefore, it may be regarded as a representative of English obstetric practice at the present time, as well as of the principles of obstetric science in Great Britain.

The main object of Dr. Davis is to represent, by the display of cases, the dangers to mother or child during parturition. That his object may be gained he details his views of natural and then of difficult and complicated labour. "Difficult parturition" is of two kinds, "powerless" and "obstructed" labour. By the first of these is understood "defective power in the agents of labour," and by the second "inordinate resistance to those agents." These are treated of in the present work; he reserves for another publication the history of complicated labours, including hemorrhages, descent of the funis, convulsions, &c., although many interesting cases of these complications appear in the present work.

We propose to give a rather cursory analysis of the opinions and reports of Dr. Davis, with the view of exhibiting some of the peculiarities of British obstetric science, as compared with the doctrines maintained in this country, and also on the continent of Europe. We may venture also to make some criticisms on the practice of Dr. Davis, although this will be done with great diffidence, inasmuch as Dr. Davis has certainly been eminently successful. Few obstetricians can assert that out of 13,783 deliveries, he lost but 31 women, or 1 in 444; and out of 13,916 children, there were only 537 still-born, or less than 4 per cent.; and many of these were, of course, unavoidable, being entirely beyond the control of the practitioner.

Dr. Davis does not, of course, present his views in full of the natural mechanism of labour, even in cranial presentations. On page 39, before speaking of forceps deliveries, he intimates his partiality for Prof. Nægele's views on this important subject, and pays the high compliment to the German professor as being the first to systematize the facts till then ascertained, and asserting that it was not until the publication of his "Essay on the Mechanism of Parturition," in 1818, "that we could be said to have attained to a proper knowledge of this important object." We cannot indorse these opinions of Dr. Davis, and most English obstetricians, of the superiority of the German school; we have no hesitation in believing that the mechanism of labour, as taught by Solayre, Baudelocque, Velpeau, and Cazeaux, is far more accurate both generally and in details, than that taught by Nægele. The discrepancies between the German and the French school are considerable, and we in America have been inclined in favour of the latter, at least so far as we have diverged from British writers whose

authority was once paramount in our country. We believe, for example, that it is not the occipito-frontal or long-diameter of the cranium which in natural labours is parallel to the oblique diameter of the superior strait even at the commencement of labour; that the bi-parietal diameter is not oblique to the brim or superior strait, but is parallel to one of the oblique diameters of this opening; that the vertex, or region of the posterior fontanelle, and not "the posterior and superior quarter of the parietal bone," is the true presenting part; that the caput succedaneum does not represent the presentation, but merely, in most cases, that portion of the head which is detained opposite the orifice of the vagina, where it receives no support from the pressure of the surrounding tissues; and, moreover, that wherever the head is of the normal size, and there is even moderate resistance at the outlet of the pelvis, as in primiparous labours, the bi-parietal diameter will become parallel to the transverse diameter of the inferior strait, and to that of the os vaginæ, and not oblique as maintained by Nægele.

We object also very seriously to the simplicity of Nægele's division of presentations, for which he has been so much commended; the reduction of all presentations of the head into cranial and face, is, we think, a dangerous error. Certainly there must be an essential difference whether the great extremity of the head descends first, presenting the cervico- or sub-occipito-bregmatic diameter, or whether the top of the head, as represented by the anterior fontanelle, occupies the central line of the pelvis, involving the occipito-frontal diameter, which often measures four inches, and not unfrequently four and a half; yet this is neglected by Nægele and his admirers who think it makes little difference in the progress of labour whether the anterior or posterior fontanelle occupies the central portion of the pelvis. True it is, that this difficulty is often overcome by the natural effort; but it is usually at the expense of great suffering on the part of the mother, protraction of the labour, and increased danger to mother and child; while, in some instances, as in a complete arrest of the head followed by its impaction, the death of the infant, and it may be that of the mother; all this because the presentation of the anterior fontanelle is confounded with that of the posterior, and no flexion was induced to change the former, or unnatural and difficult presentation, into that of a vertex or natural presentation. We must acknowledge our surprise that the importance of understanding the true mechanism of labour in this abnormal presentation of the anterior fontanelle or sinciput, as distinguished from that of the posterior fontanelle or occiput, should be so completely disregarded by British obstetricians. Even M. Cazeaux in his most admirable system of midwifery, although he recognizes theoretically and often practically this presentation, yet too often disregards it at the bedside, inasmuch as he recommends the use of the forceps in presentations of the sinciput, thereby running many risks for the child and parent by attempting to force down the long cranial diameter parallel to the diameters of the straits. More than forty years ago Dr. Dewees well observed "*that this is no case for the forceps.*" A favourable change should always be produced by means of the fingers, the hand, or the vectis, so as to convert the presentation of the sinciput into that of the occiput. In an edition of his work published in 1825, Dr. Dewees gives so graphic an account of the perplexities of a young practitioner in a case of labour "obstructed" from this cause that we cannot refrain quoting it at length, trusting that the valuable information communicated by Dr. Dewees to those who, like ourselves, were obstetric students half a century ago, may

prove equally beneficial to those of the present day, if not to their medical teachers.

"Mrs. ——— was under the care of a young practitioner of midwifery, with her fifth child. She was attacked early in the morning; her pains were strong and frequent, and every expectation was entertained that the patient would soon be delivered. The head of the child had descended to the inferior strait, but after a short period the head was found not to advance. Her friends now proposed a consultation. I was sent for, but did not arrive till after eleven o'clock P. M., and by the time I saw the patient seventeen hours had elapsed since the commencement of the labour, which until now had rarely occupied two. The gentleman in attendance declared he could not possibly conceive the reason of this very unusual delay, and begged I would examine the patient. This I did; and found the case to be the too early departure of the chin from the breast, as represented in the second situation of this presentation [that is, with the anterior fontanelle on the perineum, the forehead to the right side, the occiput to the left, and the parietal protuberance towards the orifice of the vagina]. I gave my opinion to the doctor, and tried to explain the mode of remedying this malposition. He undertook the operation under the persuasion he understood it; and I was anxious he should, as he was a particular friend of the family, and was just getting into obstetrical business. He, however, pretty quickly abandoned the side of his patient, and earnestly requested I would do what was necessary. I had the patient properly placed, and introduced my hand under the head of the child, and raised it up to a sufficient height, and then sustained the forehead until a pain came on; the first two pains did not bring down the vertex, as I had hoped, owing to the very firm contraction of the uterus upon the body of the child. I now directed the head more towards the right sacro-iliac junction, and had the satisfaction, upon the accession of the third pain, to have the vertex descend properly. I withdrew my hand, and the head was delivered the next pain to the great joy of the mother, the safety of the child, and the astonishment of the doctor."

That the success of Dr. J. Hall Davis's practice, great as it appears to be, would have been still greater if he had drawn the distinction in his operations between the presentations of the sinciput and occiput, we have no doubt. Nevertheless, it is very difficult, from the details of his cases, to specify what were or were not original presentations of the anterior fontanelle. This difficulty arises not merely from the fact that he includes all under the head of cranial presentations, but especially from a great want of accuracy (we beg pardon) in specifying the position of the head in the straits and cavity of the pelvis. Thus, on page 42, he says that the small (or posterior) fontanelle is directed to the left acetabulum, while the anterior fontanelle is towards the right sacro-iliac synchondrosis. A moment's reflection will show that this is an impossibility, for both these fontanelles are on the superior portion of the cranium, and therefore, if the posterior fontanelle is towards the acetabulum, the anterior fontanelle must be near the centre of the pelvis, while the chin would be at the opposite synchondrosis. This would involve the occipito-mental diameter. If the occipital protuberance was at the acetabulum, then the nose or the forehead would be at the opposite symphysis; or if the base of the occiput be at the acetabulum, then the anterior fontanelle would be at the opposite point of the brim. In the former case the occipito-frontal, while in the latter case the cervico-bregmatic diameter would correspond to the right oblique. In Case LIII. the position of the head is described "small fontanelle behind the right ramus of the pubes" (of ischium?); "the sagittal suture directed in left oblique diameter; large fontanelle to left sacro-iliac synchondrosis." Certainly if the posterior fontanelle were at or near the right ramus of the pubes, the anterior fontanelle would be opposed to the region of the os

coccygis, and the forehead or face toward the left sacro-iliac symphysis; or if the anterior fontanelle were towards the left synchondrosis, the sub-occipital region of the head would be opposed to the ramus of the ischium. Again—it is stated in Case XLIX. that the right ear of the child is “behind the pubes,” and “the face therefore to the right acetabulum.” This may be very correct language if, under the expression “behind the pubes,” Dr. Davis includes any portion of the pubic bones extending from the right to the left acetabulum anteriorly; but if by these words the body of the pubis be understood, which we thought was the usual acceptation, the description is inaccurate. The looseness of this expression will be more manifest by comparing this last example with Case XXXIV., where it is stated that the right ear is behind the symphysis pubis and the face towards the right ilium; and also with Case LXXXIX., where it is stated that when the “left ear (is) behind the symphysis pubis, the occiput (is) towards the right acetabulum;” while in Case XC. the “left ear (is) behind the symphysis pubis, face to left acetabulum.”

This want of precision is also evinced by Dr. Davis in using the word “face” almost invariably to represent the direction of the anterior portion of the head, instead of specifying whether it be the chin, forehead, the region of the bi-frontal suture, or that of the anterior fontanelle.

Any physician well instructed in the French or American schools would take it for granted that most of the normal presentations of the “cranium” or those of the vertex, as described by Dr. Davis, would be, in reality, abnormal. For it results, that if the face be towards the right synchondrosis, the projection of the occiput would be at the left acetabulum, and the anterior fontanelle would present at the centre of the pelvis; and, of course, the occipito-frontal or long diameter of the cranium would be concerned. In natural labours, however, after the forcing pains have taken place, it is the top of the os frontis, as represented by the bi-frontal diameter on the anterior fontanelle, which corresponds to the right synchondrosis, while the base of the cranium or sub-occipital region is towards the acetabulum. Thus, the cervico-bregmatic or short diameter of the cranium is involved, and not the long one; the face is, therefore, not *at but above* the right synchondrosis in favourable presentations of the cranium. These facts are so easily demonstrated by a simple inspection of the cranium, and their practical importance so great, that we must express our astonishment, that what has been theoretically and clinically taught by Bandelocque, Dewees, &c., should be, in a great degree, ignored by Prof Naëgelé and his followers. Dr. West, however, has recognized at least some of the positions of the anterior fontanelle presentation, as he speaks of the “fronto-cotyloid position” as distinct from the “bregmato-cotyloid position;” and very wisely recommends the lever over the occiput, and not the forceps for their management.

For these reasons we cannot form a precise idea of many of the cranial presentations, which Dr. Davis describes, but we shrewdly suspect that many were examples of presentation of the large bregma, and not of the small. Take for example Case LX., multiparous patient, where the head had been arrested, and the waters had been evacuated four hours before Dr. Davis's visit, the face being “to left ilium.” The oblique forceps were applied, but slipped; a modification of Smellie's long forceps was employed, by which rotation and delivery were effected. The caput succedaneum was found to be very large, and situated “on anterior superior quarter of left parietal bone, extending over large fontanelle.” This un-

usual position of the tumour of the scalp, in conjunction with the arrest of the head, and the declaration that the *face* was towards the left ilium, justifies the supposition that the arrest was owing to the occipito-frontal diameter being concerned, and not the sub-occipito bregmatic. In other words, it was a presentation of the anterior, and not of the posterior bregma. Therefore, we can explain the slipping of the oblique forceps, the greater efficacy of the long forceps in causing rotation and flexion, as well as the cause of the arrest and death of the infant. We would surmise that the whole of this difficulty might have been avoided by a timely operation with the fingers alone or with the vectis, so as to cause flexion and rotation, thus altering an abnormal into a normal presentation. Take also Case XLIX., second labour, head high up, arrested for six and a half hours at the brim with face towards "*right acetabulum*," delivery with the oblique forceps of a living child. In this case, no deformity of the pelvis existed, the os uteri had been dilated six and a half hours, and the face was said to be towards the right acetabulum, fourth cranial position of Nægele. Why did not the head descend? for if flexion existed, the cervico-bregmatic diameter could readily pass, corresponding to the left oblique; but Dr. Davis supposes the delay was occasioned by the fact that the postero-rotation of the face had not taken place. This is unsatisfactory, as descent of the head was not impeded, in such cases, by the want of the rotation; for all authorities notice the fact, that in the occipito-posterior position, rotation readily occurs, either anteriorly or posteriorly; and, moreover, the process of rotation very universally ensues not at the brim of the pelvis, but in its cavity, and even, according to M. Cazeaux, not until the head presses on the muscular floor of the pelvis. Our supposition, therefore, would be that the head was arrested because the forehead was towards the right acetabulum, and the occipital protuberance towards the left synchondrosis. The indication, therefore, would be to increase flexion, that the cervico-bregmatic diameter might correspond to the left oblique of the pelvis. This flexion, and the subsequent rotation of the occiput anteriorly might have been effected by means of the vectis.

In Case XXXIV. the cause of the "arrest," and not impaction, at the brim of the pelvis for ten hours, the os uteri having been dilated about eleven hours, in a primiparous patient is not explained satisfactorily. Dr. Davis attributes it to the pelvis being rather small, and the head larger than usual, the child weighing nine and a half pounds; but, as the infant was born alive, there could have been no great disproportion between the size of the head and that of the pelvis, and as the transverse or longest diameter of the brim was concerned, and as Dr. Davis says the *face* was towards the "right ilium" and the "right ear behind the symphysis pubis," it may rather be presumed that here also the delay was owing to the want of flexion, which might readily have been reduced by the vectis, with much less irritation and delay than by the use of the oblique forceps at the superior strait, their subsequent removal, and the application of the common forceps in the cavity of the pelvis. Considerable pelvic inflammation supervened three days after delivery, rendering the free use of the lancet, &c. necessary.

In Case XXXV. there was also a delay of the head at the brim of the pelvis for five hours, the os uteri having been dilated for nine hours, in a primiparous patient. It is stated that here also the *face* was "to right ilium." There appears to have been no disproportion between the head

and the pelvis; the child was readily delivered by the forceps alive. What was the cause of the arrest? Was it a deficiency of flexion?

Case XXXIX. is doubtless one wherein the difficulty arose from want of flexion; it was what Dr. West would term a "fronto-cotyloid position," or, we should say, a presentation of the anterior fontanelle, where rotation was imperfect: the "left brow and eye being behind the pubes," the occiput towards the right portion of the sacrum, the anterior fontanelle towards the centre of the pelvis; the occipito-frontal diameter was therefore concerned, and the arrest of the head for seven hours was the result, notwithstanding Dr. Davis's efforts to "change the presentation;" as he now expresses it by pushing up the brow with his fingers. Not succeeding in this operation he waits three hours under the hope, he says, that the strong pains which existed might convert it into a face presentation. He then determined to employ the oblique forceps, so as to bring down the occiput, and cause the ascent of the brow.

Dr. Davis says he preferred the forceps to the vectis to change the presentation, but it is difficult to conceive how flexion could be more easily induced by the blades of the forceps acting with a compressing power, upon the sides of the os frontis and occiput rather than a vectis to depress the occiput, while the fingers pushed up the os frontis behind the pubes. The question might also be suggested whether in this case it would not have been safer to depress the chin so as to secure a face presentation, which Dr. Davis had hopes would have spontaneously occurred.

Under this head of "forceps deliveries" there are also several other cases where the head was arrested respectively for four, five, six, eight, ten hours or more, frequently without apparent cause, sometimes, it is said, because the pelvis was rather contracted; in others the head was large, or too much ossified: occasionally there was a want of sufficient pain; but in several there seemed to be no adequate cause of arrest, the os uteri being dilated, the soft parts sufficiently relaxed, and yet arrest taking place. Perhaps we may be wrong in the suggestion, that if the distinction had been drawn between the presentation of the anterior and posterior fontanelle, the cause of the arrest in some of these cases would have been explained, and by means of the fingers or the vectis, the presentation might have been favourably altered, so that no delay would have existed, and the forceps not have been required.

There is, however, another series of cases of more fearful import, in which similar questions might be agitated. Thus in Case XCII., among the "craniotomy deliveries," is a record of a difficult delivery in a primiparous patient, where there was great rigidity, labour commencing on a Thursday. There was no dilatation of the os uteri until Sunday evening at 6 o'clock. The head was found to have half descended into the pelvic cavity with the left ear and a hand beside it behind the symphysis pubis, the *face* to the left ilium. Ergot had been given in consequence of the pains having flagged, and the attending surgeon had attempted to apply the forceps, but could not make them lock. At 2 A. M. of Monday, Dr. Davis was called, found the patient in good condition, pulse 86, numerous secretions in the vagina, &c.; the hand could not be replaced. At 3.30 A. M. Dr. Davis attempted the forceps, but could only introduce one blade; therefore delivered the patient by craniotomy.

May we not again ask what was the cause of the head being delayed for some ten hours half way down the cavity of the pelvis, after the os uteri had been completely dilated, and what was the real difficulty of locking the

forceps when they were first introduced, and why the necessity for craniotomy after the second failure in the use of the forceps? The presence of the hand, between the pubis and the head, might afford a partial but certainly not a complete answer to these questions. We cannot but surmise, however, that the difficulty arose from the occipito-frontal diameter extending from one plane of the ischium to the other; it was really a presentation of the anterior fontanelle, especially as it is asserted that the "face" was towards the left ilium. In any case, however, there ought to have been, we think, a judicious and persistent effort made by means of the rectis, directed towards the right sacro-iliac symphysis over the occiput, so as to induce flexion and rotation anteriorly, assisted by the fingers applied to the upper and left portion of the os frontis, and thus altering the presentation, and determining the occiput forward and the face backward. Then, if necessary, the forceps could have been readily and efficiently applied, and it is possible that the dreadful alternative of craniotomy might have been avoided. Notwithstanding the great tediousness of this labour, and the arrest of the head for so many hours, the patient fortunately recovered after some pelvic inflammation, requiring venesection, calomel, and opium.

Respecting the mechanism of labour in vertex presentations, we have already intimated our entire disbelief in what Dr. Davis considers as an universally accepted fact, that the long axis of the cranium (occipito-frontal) is *parallel* to the oblique. We maintain that the head is in a state of partial flexion even at the commencement of labour, and that after the pains become forcing, flexion is so far perfected that the cervico-bregmatic diameter is parallel to the oblique diameter of the brim.

Of the progress of the head through the pelvis, the description given by Dr. Davis, although not minute, indicates very correctly the several processes of rotation, spiral motion, and extension. He acknowledges that restitution of the head spontaneously occurs, although he does not indicate the cause, neither does he notice the external rotation of the head after restitution and during the rotation of the shoulders.

In detailing the mechanism of labour in Naëgelé's third cranial or left fronto-cotyloid position (IV. of Baudelocque), or right occipito-posterior position of the vertex presentation, Dr. Davis has, we think, been very inaccurate on points of great practical importance.

He says that

"The small fontanelle looks here to the right sacro-iliac joint of the pelvis; the large fontanelle to the left cotyloid region; the long axis of the head is parallel to the right oblique diameter, as in the first position; the left parietal bone, its tuber, and, subsequently, if postero-rotation of the face is accomplished, its posterior superior quarters are the most anterior and depending parts."

This description of the position of the head abounds with inaccuracies. If the posterior fontanelle be at or near the "right sacro-iliac joint," the chin of the child must be towards the acetabulum; if, however, as we suppose Dr. Davis meant to intimate, the occipital protuberance be at the posterior symphysis, then, not the anterior fontanelle, but the forehead would be at the acetabulum; the occipito-frontal would be parallel with the oblique diameter. But this, we maintain, is not a case of natural labour, or a presentation of the vertex or region of the posterior fontanelle; it is actually a presentation of the sinciput, or anterior fontanelle, implying more or less delay and suffering to the mother, and demanding immediate attention from the judicious and scientific obstetrician. The

accurate description would be to say that the base of the occiput was towards the sacro-iliac symphysis, and the top of the os frontis or anterior fontanelle was at the acetabulum, implying that the cervico-bregmatic diameter would be parallel to the oblique diameter, as in all other normal presentations of the vertex, and would insure a comparatively easy labour. We object, also, to the assertion, founded upon Nægele's opinion, that the posterior superior angle of the parietal bone is the "most dependent part" of the cranium, intimating the obliquity of the bi-parietal diameter, and not its parallelism with the oblique diameter of the brim.

In describing the progress of the head, the process of conversion from the third to the second cranial position of Nægele, in consequence of rotation of the occiput on the ischiatic plane, and the accomplishment of delivery as in an original second position are noticed; but, unfortunately, through a *lapsus pennæ*, or the carelessness of a proof-reader, "the small fontanelle and occiput" are said to be "expelled last." In alluding to the shoulders, it is stated that when the head has assumed, in the pelvis, its parallelism to the left oblique diameter, the shoulders "lie in the right oblique diameter of the brim." This seems to us an assumption which may possibly be true, but, ordinarily, we have every reason to believe is incorrect; for at the commencement of labour, in this third cranial position, the right shoulder is over the left sacro-iliac symphysis, and it is not to be supposed that, during the rotation of the head, the shoulder will be forced over the prominence of the sacrum and lumbar vertebrae to the right side. The teachings which we have received, confirmed by our own observation, declare that, usually, the shoulders rotate but very slightly with the head, and that they maintain very nearly the same obliquity they had at the beginning of labour. Hence, when the head is born, and the torsion of the neck is relieved, restitution of the head brings the face of the child anterior and to the left, and the occiput posterior and to the right. It results, therefore, that the right shoulder, instead of rotating from the right sacro-iliac symphysis to the hollow of the sacrum, rotates in an opposite direction from the left sacro-iliac symphysis towards the centre of the sacrum.

In describing the mechanism of the fourth or "right fronto-cotyloid position," the same inaccuracies as to the fontanelles and the diameters of the head are noticeable.

Dr. Davis acknowledges the existence of exceptional cases, where the occiput rotates posteriorly instead of anteriorly, and where the "face" is "to pubes." He asserts that, in such cases, the occiput descends to the extremity of the coccyx, and there "impinges upon it, as upon a fulcrum, and becomes a fixed point, while the face at the pubes gradually revolves outwards" and is delivered first at the vulva. We cannot receive this as correct in any point of view, as the mechanism of labour in normal cranial positions. In the first place, it is not the forehead or the face, in these occipito-posterior positions of the vertex, which come directly against the pubes, it is the top of the os frontis; while the occiput does not impinge upon the extremity of the "*sacrum*" to be retained there as upon a fulcrum; but it lies against the *coccyx*, so that, as the head progresses, the sub-occipital region of the head is towards the os coccygis, and the anterior fontanelle under the pubic arch. Hence the cervico-bregmatic diameter corresponds to the coccy-pubal diameter of the inferior strait, and not the occipito-frontal, as Dr. Davis intimates. The subsequent delivery of the head is entirely in opposition to the statements of Dr. Davis.

According to the views of the best obstetricians, the occiput, and not the face, is delivered first in these positions of the cranium. If the perineum be rigid, the os frontis is gradually, and after much laborious effort, forced up behind and within the pubis, while the occiput forcibly extends the perineum until eventually it is delivered over the posterior margin of the vulva : then the forehead, nose, and chin appear successively under the arch of the pubis.

If, however, the perineum be relaxed, it yields so readily to the pressure of the occiput, that the forehead is not forced up behind the pubis, but is retained at the arch ; while the occiput passes rapidly to the vulva, so that the occipito-frontal diameter presents at the relaxed and distended orifice of the vagina, the occipital extremity taking precedence.

In our opinion, what Dr. Davis has described as “face to pubes cases,” is an entirely different presentation of the head ; for it is manifest if the face be to the pubis, and the occiput to the sacrum or coccyx, the occipito-frontal or long diameter of the cranium corresponds to the long diameter of the inferior strait, and that the anterior fontanelle is opposed to the perineum ; in other words, to the centre of the inferior strait of the pelvis. This constitutes a presentation of the sinciput, or anterior fontanelle at the inferior strait ; it is abnormal, and very dangerous to mother and child, indeed, fatal, unless a rectification occurs spontaneously, or artificially. Dr. Davis describes one mode in which this presentation is occasionally rectified by the bearing down efforts of the mother, viz : the retention of the occiput, and the descent of the face to the vulva, so that delivery is effected as in favourable original presentations of the face. Even here, we object to the expression, that the occiput impinges against the “tip of the sacrum,” and is there retained as upon a fulcrum. This is not, and, we believe, cannot, be true ; for just in proportion as the face descends from behind the pubis, the occiput must ascend : it is a regular process of extension of the head, no part of which is “fixed” or immovable.

The second natural mode of delivery, in these “face to pubes” cases, is under the influence of vigorous pains, long continued, for the occiput to be forced down past the coccyx to the perineum, while the face ascends behind the pubis, and delivery is effected in the manner formerly described : in other words, a conversion ensues from a presentation of the anterior to one of the posterior fontanelle with all its attendant advantages.

The practical deduction from these facts is of the greatest importance. Nature's processes ought to be imitated in all the fronto-cotyloid positions of the “*posterior fontanelle*” presentation. Every assistance should be rendered to insure the anterior rotation of the occiput and the posterior of the os frontis. If, however, rotation has occurred of the occiput posteriorly, the ascent of the os frontis behind the pubis, and the descent of the os occipitis posteriorly should be facilitated by every means in our power. If, also, there be a presentation of the “*anterior fontanelle*” at the inferior strait, it is essential that the practitioner should convert it either into a vertex presentation, by increasing the flexion of the head, or into a face presentation by causing extension. Great suffering and danger may thus be avoided for the mother, and the life of the infant may often be preserved.

Dr. Davis, after descanting upon the relative frequency of the different positions of a cranial presentation, and giving the force of his authority to Naëgele's assertion that the third is more frequent than the second, alludes to transverse positions of the head. These, he considers as “abnor-

mal;" he says they are "extremely rarely original, being derived from the *third* or *fourth* (fronto-cotyloid) positions; the head being caught, as it were, in its transition state, arrested in the course of rotation of the face from either acetabulum to the synchondrosal joint, or sacrum." We must believe that the whole of this is hypothetical; we have not the least confidence in the repeated assertion of Naëgele and his admirers, that the occipito-posterior positions of the vertex (so called fronto-cotyloid of the cranium) occur so frequently as they maintain. We have so constantly watched the progress of labour, prior to the descent of the head through the os uteri and superior strait to the completion of the process, that we must believe that original transverse positions of the head are far more frequent than the occipito-posterior. Moreover, we cannot perceive the least proof derived from theory or experience, that would confirm the singular idea that "the head" is "caught" during its transition from the anterior to the posterior part of the pelvis. We may seriously ask what there is to catch the head, to arrest the process of rotation. Certainly, it is not in the os uteri, neither, as far as we can perceive, is it in the pelvis, for the transverse diameter at the brim is longer than the oblique, and the inclinations of the ischiatic planes towards each other from above downwards, and from the posterior to the anterior part of the pelvis, are so gradual and regular, that, so far from arresting they tend to facilitate, in the greatest possible degree, this rotation. We maintain, therefore, that in the presentations of the posterior fontanelle, there is no tendency to arrest in the transverse positions; that these positions, therefore, are not, on this account, abnormal. It is almost universally the case, that as labour advances, rotation of the occiput anteriorly will occur: of course, with more delay than in an original first or second position; but with more readiness than in an original third or fourth. Hence, we have always dissented from those French authorities, who have considered transverse positions as peculiar: they are practically first or second positions.

We take it for granted, while making these criticisms, that Dr. Davis was speaking of favourable presentations of the cranium, and that the word "abnormal" applied not to a malpresentation, but to a malposition of the head. We make this observation, because he describes the position as transverse with the face "directed to the left or right ilium," which, in strict language, would intimate that the occipital protuberance was upon one side, the forehead upon the opposite, and the anterior fontanelle towards the centre of the pelvis. This would indicate a presentation of the sinciput, not of the occiput, involving the occipito-frontal or long diameter of the cranium, instead of the cervico-bregmatic or short diameter. This presentation we certainly think is "extremely rarely original," and truly abnormal, and may be followed by an arrest of the head.

As this work of Dr. Davis is devoted chiefly to difficult labour, instrumental deliveries occupy much attention. It is still a subject of much interest, and one of great practical difficulty to determine the relative value of different modes of instrumental assistance. There must, indeed, always exist cases where craniotomy, for example, is indispensable; but, nevertheless, statistical observations show that, in a very large number of cases, the decision as to the mode or manner of delivery depends on the practitioner: whether by version, the forceps, or craniotomy.

It is to England that the world is indebted for the forceps, an instrument most simple and most invaluable. The blessings it has conferred on humanity have not been, and are not even yet, fully developed; the proper

appreciation of their worth has been of slow growth, and, strange to say, slower in Britain than in any other civilized country. Thus, while Collins in Dublin reports one case of forceps in every 617 labours, Simpson in Edinburgh has one in 472, and Ramsbotham of London one in 611; in France, Madame La Chapelle gives one in 293, Madame Boivin one in 214; in Germany, Boer of Vienna one in 274, Naëgele one in 31, Kluge of Berlin one in 16, Carns of Dresden one in 14, and Siebold of Berlin one in 7.

Of course, it is not to be inferred from the above statements that the German obstetricians were always judicious in their resort to the forceps, or that the English practitioners should be too severely criticized for the comparative neglect of this powerful agent. Nevertheless, we, in America, have become so enamoured of the benefits conferred by this instrument and can discern so few objections to its frequent employment, that we do wonder at the caution and timidity of the English practitioner, and at the numerous restrictions placed upon the use of the forceps. Several valuable articles have appeared of late in the Dublin and London journals, exhorting to a more frequent recourse to this instrument, and especially to the necessity of its early employment in difficult labour, at least before the child's life or the mother's tissues are endangered by the delay or arrest of the head. Dr. Davis details from his private practice and consultations a number of very interesting forceps deliveries, which would indicate his partiality for the instrument, and his opinion that a large number of infants would be saved by a more timely resort to its aid. Nevertheless, in his statistics respecting the number of forceps deliveries under his superintendence, in the Royal Maternity Charity, we find that they were applied only fifteen times in 13,783 deliveries, being one in about 919 cases. In the Middlesex Hospital, during a space of two years (March, 1863, to March, 1865), there were 1400 deliveries, and the forceps applied fourteen times, being one in 100; while he gives 40 cases from his private practice of their application.

A strong argument in favour of this mode of delivery is, that in those countries where the forceps are more frequently used, craniotomy cases are proportionately diminished: thus, while Collins in Dublin had one forceps in 617 cases, he reports one craniotomy in 141 cases; while Siebold in Berlin had one forceps in every *seventh* case, and only one craniotomy in 2093! Although it would be wrong to make any positive deduction from such statistics, yet the conclusion is unavoidable, that the more frequent use of the forceps would tend to the preservation of foetal and maternal life, and certainly would save a vast amount of human suffering. In the practice of Dr. Davis, we find, so far as regards the Royal Maternity Charity, intrusted to his superintendence, the number of craniotomy cases did not exceed those of the forceps, being fifteen in 13,783 deliveries, *i. e.*, one in about 919 cases. This result might, at first sight, be attributed to the use of the forceps; but a large proportion of the diminution of craniotomy cases is doubtless owing to the resort to premature labour in cases of deformed pelvis.

It is also to our British brethren that we are indebted for this "valuable addition to obstetric science, viz: the Induction of Premature Labour." They have boldly and successfully triumphed over all the prejudices, and all the arguments, which were opposed to its introduction. Many lives have been preserved through its instrumentality, and it is now one of the established operations of scientific midwifery. Dr. Davis himself details

numerous interesting cases of its employment with great safety to the mother, and very frequently preserving the life of the child.

Respecting the forceps, and the circumstances under which they may be employed, Dr. Davis's directions are mainly very judicious, although it is evident he would restrict their employment much more than would be done in this country or on the continent of Europe. He intimates, for example, that the forceps should not be applied so long as the head advances, however slowly, provided there be no evidences of exhaustion or impaction. Certainly, if the os uteri be dilated, and it is evident that labour advances very slowly in proportion to the severity of the pains, early assistance by the forceps will not only prevent much suffering, but tends to obviate the danger of impaction and inflammation. Again, he says that the forceps, in his opinion, are not to be employed if a full-grown child be present, unless there be at least $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches in the conjugate diameter. The general advice upon this subject, and the one which we have followed, is to trust to the forceps when there are 3 inches only in the antero-posterior diameter. Again, he says that a labour in which the ear cannot be reached, and where the finger of the practitioner "cannot be passed between the head and the pelvic wall at any point, is obviously one in which we could not have recourse to the forceps." To follow out this direction would limit exceedingly the use of the forceps, while there are numerous cases, especially where the head is at the superior strait, that the ear cannot be reached, and yet where the forceps may be readily and successfully employed, the diagnosis having been accurately established by examining the fontanelles and sutures. Certainly, also, the thin blades of the forceps can be safely insinuated between the cranium of the child and the vagina, where the finger of the practitioner could not penetrate. We object also to the following restriction, that "we should feel satisfied that there is risk to either the mother or child from a longer protracted pressure." Of course, on this point there can be no hesitation, but in many instances why should we wait until there be danger to either party? Why not operate as soon as it is evident that nature is not fully adequate to her work from a deficiency of power, or from too great resistance, suitable preparatory treatment having been instituted? Why not operate, other circumstances being favourable, to relieve the patient of the anxieties and sufferings of a protracted labour; to dispel the fears of a nervous or semi-delirious mother; and also, even in those cases of easy but slow labour, where the ergot might be beneficial, but where the forceps are a more certain, speedy, and safe mode of relief; and, finally, when there is evidently a difficult labour from a disproportion between the head and the pelvis, why not apply the forceps early, as soon as the os uteri is fully dilated, that traction may be made moderately during the bearing-down efforts, and thus have the advantage of additional power to overcome the resistance, and shortening the time during which the life of the child and the mother's tissues are endangered from pressure? Our experience is that the life of the infant and the welfare of the mother will be less exposed under this practice than when time is given to what is termed the "moulding of the head" to the pelvic passages.

It is true, however, that to accomplish all these desirable objects the forceps should be of a suitable form, size, and power. Dr. Davis gives a short account of the history of the forceps, their construction, &c. He alludes frequently to Dr. Deuman's short forceps, but especially to his own improvement of Smellie's long forceps. As no drawings are given, we cannot judge of their especial advantages. In speaking of their "construc-

tion," he says that the "width between the opposite blades and of the fenestræ should be sufficient to guard against dangerous compression of the child's tender brain." It is not stated what space should exist between the blades when the handles are in contact; and as heads are of various dimensions, it would be impossible to construct a pair of forceps of a given width where the internal surfaces of the blades would come into close contact with the head, and yet no compression be made upon the cranium. Three and a half inches, for example, is the average measure of the biparietal diameter; and if this space be allowed, then injurious compression would be made, according to this theory, upon the head measuring three and three-quarters or four inches in this transverse direction; while a head measuring but three inches transversely could not be held firmly, and all attempts at traction would be dangerous.

Moreover, the forceps are generally applied where there is too much resistance; hence, either by nature or art there must be some compression, greater or less, before it can be delivered. If, therefore, the forceps be too wide, they would be of no value; indeed, in some cases of contraction of the pelvis, it might be doubtful whether the forceps themselves, if very wide, could be extracted from the pelvis without being previously unlocked. We have a specimen of a forceps in our Obstetric Museum thus *prudently* constructed, which measures little short of four inches in width when the handles are in contact. The truth is, that the forceps ought to be constructed of such a width as to make any compression upon the head which the obstetrician would deem advisable; his judgment, skill, and science are to determine the degree of compression which cannot be regulated by the form of the instrument. The practitioner who cannot regulate the power he employs, but must be restrained by the character of his instrument, should not be intrusted with a case of operative delivery.

In describing a "good instrument," it ought to have been clearly stated by Dr. Davis that the blades when once applied to the head should occupy no space, *i. e.*, the fenestræ should be so wide as to allow of the projection of the most salient points, especially of the parietal protuberances on the sides of the head. These comparatively large fenestræ constitute a great recommendation of the forceps of Haighton, Dr. David D. Davis, and of those which we have recommended; while the narrow fenestræ of most of the English, and all of the French and German forceps, detracts exceedingly from the value of the instrument, as always endangering the tissues of the scalp and those of the pelvis, and also augmenting the necessary compression on the head of the infant before delivery can be effected.

The addition of parallel "shanks" between the proper blades and the lock, as proposed by Dr. D. Davis, is, in every respect, a great improvement. We are not disposed at present to enter into a discussion whether the short handles of the English, or the long handles of the French forceps are preferable, but may notice it hereafter. We are decidedly in favour of the long handles, inasmuch as it increases the power of the instrument, as levers, and therefore enables the practitioner to accomplish, with a trifling exertion, a delivery which would demand a strong, muscular arm when the short handles are employed. Perhaps the failure of effecting delivery in many cases recorded by Dr. J. Hall Davis, might have been owing to this very circumstance; at any rate, it seems to us strange why that, in many instances recorded, delivery was not completed with the forceps; for when the hold on the head was secure, and the case suitable for this instrument, we can perceive no reason for their removal, especially upon the supposition

that the child was living. It is manifest that the forceps alone presented any hope for the child; therefore it would have been much better by cautious perseverance, using the instrument not merely as tractors but also as levers and compressors, to have made an effort for its safety. It is not probable even that, if the instrument were a good one, the tissues of the mother would be in any greater danger, as the forceps would occupy no space in the transverse direction of the head, and any compression of the cranium diminished *pro rata* the pressure on the vagina, &c. If the child were dead perforation should be at once resorted to.

Dr. Davis, as we have already seen, is decidedly in favour of causing rotation of the head by means of the forceps in all cases of arrest in transverse positions, and also in the left or right fronto-cotyloid (right occipito-posterior and left occipito-posterior) position. We have already animadverted upon this practice as increasing the danger to the tissues of the mother and child, and greatly augmenting the difficulty of operating. Our experience for years has been so universally successful in the use of the vectis to effect rotation, with little delay and without the least danger to the maternal or fetal tissues, excepting of course in some cases of locked head, that we must believe *that these are not cases for the forceps*. Dr. Davis is conscious of the difficulty, and condemns therefore in these positions the ordinary forceps, and even those of Dr. Denman, to which many of his fellow practitioners are partial. He recommends, therefore, for the purpose of rotation the "oblique forceps," so-called, as the blades are to be applied obliquely to the head; one blade, which is the long one, over the fronto-lateral portion of the cranium and face; and the other, or short one, over the occipito-lateral. No drawings are given of this instrument, but we presume it is the same as depicted in Dr. David D. Davis's "Operative Midwifery." For practical purposes, two of these instruments must be at command, as the short blade must be sometimes applied on the left and sometimes on the right side of the pelvis according to the position of the head. We can perceive no necessity for this multiplication of the blades of the forceps, or for the necessity of having more than one *good instrument*; at any rate, it is all that we have found necessary even when the head is locked by the bi-parietal diameter, and where the blades should be applied obliquely over the fronto-lateral and occipito-lateral portions of the head; no injury having been sustained by the scalp or tissues of the neck by a long blade over the lateral occipital region. As we have no experience in the use of the forceps with unequal blades, it might be considered rather presumptuous to suggest that there is more danger of their slipping, than if the blades were of equal length; at any rate, this accident is described as having occurred in the hands of Dr. Davis in Case LX. We entirely agree with Dr. Davis that the blades of the instrument should never be applied directly towards the pubis or sacrum; and very seldom, if ever, directly over the face and occiput; but if this last-mentioned operation should unfortunately be essential, we see no necessity for a special instrument for the purpose; for if one blade of the long forceps be directly applied over the occipital region, and the other over the frontis, there is little danger, with common prudence, of injuring the features of the infant; for the very moment that the handles are grasped, flexion of the head is induced to such a degree that the pressure of the frontal blade is expended upon the os frontis, and not upon the face.

On the "Application of the Forceps" Dr. Davis's directions are, upon the whole, very judicious; certainly, they may be called prudent. There

are several points, however, to which we in America would express a decided dissent. Maintaining the position upon the side seems to us very awkward for the patient and practitioner, especially as not allowing the accoucheur to judge accurately of the relative position of the head, or of the changes which ensue during the progress of descent. Moreover, the position upon the side gives some lateral obliquity to the uterus, and, of course, to the child, and does not allow the practitioner to examine accurately the size or position of the uterus during the delivery. The patient also is far less at the command of the operator. This is often so true that Dr. Davis himself resorts to chloroform to obviate her restlessness. Occasionally, in some nervous and excitable patients, the moderate administration of anæsthetics may be admissible; but in forceps cases, as a general rule, anæsthesia ought not to be employed. We are of the opinion that the patient should be at the command of her accoucheur; she should advertise him of her sensations, and she should resist or encourage the bearing down effort according to his directions. We also maintain that a forceps operation with a good instrument, and in experienced hands, ought not to augment the sufferings of the patient. Hence, there is no necessity for ether or chloroform, unless there be some other complication than the necessity of resorting to the forceps.

In giving directions as to the application of the blades, by Dr. D., we think that there are several important defects and omissions. He supposes a case of the first or second position "*where the head is at or near the outlet.*" This implies that the head has nearly or quite completed its rotatory movement; therefore, that the occiput is at the vulva: but no allusion is made to the application of the forceps, in these first and second positions, when the head is still oblique in the cavity of the pelvis. This is a very important omission, for, according to our experience, it is often the most difficult case of delivery by the forceps, and in all instances demands some special attentions to the right adjustment of the blades. The character of these attentions is well portrayed by Dewees, Barcelocque, Velpéau, &c.; but from this omission of Dr. D., and from the language he employs, when speaking of his forceps operations, it appears that he has adopted the German rule of applying the forceps to the sides of the pelvis in all these cases, irrespective of the direct or oblique positions of the head: a rule certainly, we think, by no means accurate or scientific.

As to the "locking of the blades," Dr. D.'s caution to avoid force, &c., is all important; nevertheless, his experience and our own are, in many points, very diverse, *e. g.*, when there is a difficulty of locking the forceps, he advises that a short straight blade be substituted for the one which could not be adjusted. Hence he employs a short blade, which may act as a counterpart to either blade of his ordinary instrument. No doubt such an arrangement may often be successful; but it necessarily renders the instrument more liable to slip, and must diminish its effective power. With a good instrument where the blades are not too wide, the locking can universally be effected. Dr. D. goes still further, and advises that if this latter mode with the short blade does not answer, the instrument should be withdrawn, "and delivery be accomplished by other means." What other means? Does the Dr. intend the perforator, because the forceps cannot be easily adjusted and the child is living, and nothing wanted for its preservation except the easy locking of the forceps?

Dr. Davis gives very proper cautions as to the mode of acting with the instrument, only during the pains, of intermitting the pressure, and of

making traction effort slowly and carefully, &c.; but he gives no particular allusion to the use of the forceps as levers, which the accoucheurs in France and America deem a most efficient power, equally advantageous to both mother and child when judiciously exercised. Each blade is to be regarded as a single lever, the fulcrum at the joint. The forceps, therefore, is a double lever; and a lateral motion from one handle to the other made slowly, while traction is, at the same time, continued, is exceedingly efficacious in causing the descent of the head with little muscular effort. This pendulum-like motion is, in all cases, to be limited, especially when the head is high in the pelvis; and when judiciously exercised, is less dangerous to the tissues of the mother and child, than pure or simple traction. The long handles of the French forceps, by increasing the leverage, have therefore decided advantage over the short handles of the English and German forceps.

Again, Dr. Davis advises almost universally that the blades should be removed when the head is brought to the perineum, under the idea, it seems, that this tissue will be more liable to rupture if the forceps remain applied. This reason may possibly be correct where the forceps have small fenestræ, or where they are too broad, too large, &c., or where the head is rapidly and forcibly extracted from the vulva: but our experience is that with a good pair of forceps in the hands of an accoucheur, who is cautious and not too hasty, the perineum and all the tissues of the outlet will be as safe if the forceps remain applied, as when removed. We thus avoid also the dangers incident to the scalp of the child when the blades are removed while the head is subjected to the greatest possible pressure at the outlet of the body. It may be remarked, also, that, in many instances, especially of powerless labour, the woman could not accomplish delivery, even when the head is on the perineum, and the forceps therefore would have to be reapplied under very unfavourable circumstances. It is also a great disappointment for the patient, who has been told that her delivery would be accomplished by the instruments, to find that these agents have been removed, and yet the child is not born, and she must suffer on for a longer or shorter period.

As regards the 3d and 4th positions of Nægele, Dr. Davis well advises that the natural predisposition of the occiput to rotate forwards and the face backwards, should be assisted. We are surprised, however, to observe the following direction that if the face be "already moved somewhat forward to the pubes, we should promote the rotation of the face forwards to the pubic arch." This we think bad practice, for modern experience proves that, in such cases, it is safe to have the anterior rotation of the occiput, and that it can be gradually effected by artificial measures. On the contrary, if the occiput rotates backwards, the patient is exposed to all the protracted suffering and dangers incident to the passage of the occiput over the posterior part of the pelvis, while the child at the same time has its life jeopardized, if at term, and especially in primiparous women.

Respecting the means of facilitating the posterior rotation of the face, Dr. Davis seems disposed to leave the process almost entirely to nature, except in cases of decided arrest of the spiral motion, and then he trusts the case exclusively to the "oblique forceps." We have great confidence in the powers of nature, and in the theory that the occipito-posterior positions will, in a very large proportion of cases, be spontaneously converted into occipito-anterior positions. We nevertheless maintain that the further the occiput is removed from the pubis, the more delay and difficulty, *cæteris*

paribus, will be experienced in this process. The labour, therefore, is difficult and tedious, and with great increased suffering and danger to the mother, and even to the infant. It may be also that the rotation does not occur, the head is arrested in the oblique position, or, what is always unfavourable, the occiput rotates to the hollow of the sacrum. We feel very confident in the truth of these assertions, although very much in opposition to modern notions, especially to those of M. Naëgele, who regards such positions not only as exceedingly common, but almost, if not altogether, as favourable as anterior positions of the occiput.

Acting upon the above views, we never leave an occipito-posterior position (or fronto-cotyloid) simply to the natural efforts, and we have the satisfaction, therefore, of declaring that in no case in our practice, which has lasted more than forty years, have we failed, when the attempt has been made, of effecting an anterior rotation of the occiput, in these third and fourth positions. As soon, therefore, as the os uteri is dilated and the forcing pains have commenced, one or two fingers, according to the direction of Baudelocque, should be applied to the pubic side of the os frontis so as to determine it backwards during a pain, and thus facilitate, at each returning bearing-down effort, the natural disposition of the os frontis to recede from the anterior to the posterior part of the pelvis. In a large proportion of cases, this is all that is demanded, but where delays or difficulties occur, the vectis should be introduced over the sacral side of the occiput, so as to determine it anteriorly along the inclined plane of the pelvis towards the vulva. This simple instrument has, in our hands, been completely successful; it gives no pain or irritation to the mother, who is not conscious of its presence, and not the least injury need be inflicted on the tissues of the mother, or on the scalp of the child. The vectis, we should think, ought for this purpose entirely to supersede the forceps, whether straight or curved, with equal or unequal blades: all of which are difficult of application, more or less dangerous to the tissues, and, judging from Dr. Davis's reports, not unfrequently unsuccessful. He speaks of the necessity of removing the forceps in some instances, and in others, of the slipping of the blades. We know that our opinions and practice are very much in opposition to those of many obstetric authors; and yet our experience as well as our theories fully confirm their correctness. Amid the multiplicity and acrimony of the debates respecting the relative advantages of the forceps and vectis, it seems surprising that the latter instrument, formerly supposed to be so superior, should have fallen into such disuse, and that its real value has not been accurately explained. Far inferior to the forceps as to power in causing the descent and delivery of the head, yet there are numerous instances in which this single bladed instrument should be preferred as more simple, more efficient, and less dangerous than the forceps: it is particularly adapted to cases where flexion and rotation are deficient.

Similar remarks may be made respecting all the "*transverse positions*" of the vertex. In our experience they are as easily managed, in most instances, as original first or second positions. If, however, there be any delay, the process of rotation should be, and can be, facilitated with as much and even with more ease than in original third and fourth positions, inasmuch as the occiput has to describe only two-eighths of a circle, during the process of rotation forward, instead of three-eighths of a circle, as it must do in third and fourth positions. Why, therefore, Dr. Davis should regard these transverse positions as abnormal, why he should speak of

them as an arrest of the process of rotation of the head from a fronto-cotyloid position, and why he should be called upon so frequently to apply his oblique forceps, it is difficult to understand. The head can very universally be determined, from this transverse position, by means of the fingers directed to the os frontis, or, if needs be, by means of the vectis directed to the os occipitis so as to insure its obliquity, as in the first or second position of the vertex. Theoretically and practically, therefore, transverse positions belong to the first and second positions of the vertex. We therefore never could perceive any good reason for speaking of eight positions of the vertex, as is done by various French authorities; or, if four grand positions of the cranium be assumed, as is done by M. Cazeaux, there should be any subdivision into the left or right occipito-iliac positions.

As to the application of the "long forceps" at the superior strait, or brim of the pelvis, Dr. Davis entertains, in common with most British practitioners, a dread of this valuable agent. He says "it may with truth be observed that, as a rule, when the head is arrested at the upper strait, the difficulty is of that degree to be overcome only by the safer operation of craniotomy." If the child be already dead, this rule of Dr. Davis is very good; but, if the child be living, we can perceive no humanity and no science in thus sacrificing the life of a human being, without resorting to the forceps, or, if these be not at hand, to what we deem a less safe operation, podalic version. Dr. Davis, however, specifies certain cases where there was no resistance from the soft parts, where the pains were strong, the child living, and where there was room for the forceps, which would justify "a cautious trial of the long forceps."

We acknowledge that we have no such dread of the "long forceps" at the superior strait, if they be properly constructed, and in the hands of a well-educated and experienced practitioner. There is no intrinsic difficulty in their application or in their locking, and, if judgment and prudence be exercised, and traction be made in the direction of the "obstetric axis," there is no special danger, either to the tissues of the parent or to those of the infant. If, therefore, there be three or more inches in the antero-posterior diameter of the superior strait, and the head of the child be of ordinary size, and the os uteri fully dilated, we think the forceps should be applied early, that is, soon after the bearing down efforts have commenced. To wait hours for the elongation and moulding of the head, for tumefaction of the scalp, or for the congestion or inflammation of the tissues of the mother, or until the practitioner be alarmed at the prospect of rupture of the uterus, of convulsions, fever, or exhaustion, &c., cannot be justified. If there be a necessity for the forceps, it should be determined as soon as possible, and the operation be performed, while the mother and infant are in good condition: the prospect of success would be then great for both mother and child; protracted sufferings and many dangers would be prevented, and in a large number of cases the fearful alternative of craniotomy may be avoided. We also are of the number of those who believe that the forceps operation at the brim of the pelvis is greatly to be preferred to podalic version in cases of "arrest," even when there is some disproportion between the head and the pelvis, notwithstanding the zealous and learned argument of Professor Simpson in favour of version.

Dr. Davis makes a few observations on transverse and oblique positions of the head when arrested at the superior strait, recommending the use of his oblique forceps, in these cases, in the same manner as when the head was lower in the cavity of the pelvis. He, very wisely, objects to the pas-

sage of the blades towards the bladder and rectum in these transverse positions at the superior strait, and thinks that it is very seldom necessary to apply them over the occiput and face of the child, but advises one blade over the pubic side of the os frontis, and the other on the sacral side of the occiput. In this we heartily concur, as there is almost always room towards the acetabulum and sacro-iliac symphysis for the passage of the blades, as the pressure in this oblique direction over the head of the child does not augment the bi-parietal diameter, and as the action of the instrument upon the side of the os frontis and the side of the occiput necessarily facilitates rotation of the head, so desirable under these circumstances. We have always practised and recommended this mode of application when the head has been "locked" between the pubis and sacrum.

In the summary given by Dr. Davis respecting the employment of the forceps, he exhorts to great care in determining the proper case for their use, and the time or circumstances in which they should be applied. Believing that, in all cases, "some risk is inseparable from (their) use," he wishes to guard the young practitioner from a too early resort to the instrument, asserting that so long as the head advances and recedes, during and after a pain, that the tissues of the mother are safe; but, if the child does not advance under powerful pains at the expiration of five or six hours, then the operation should be resorted to. If, however, well directed extractive power be exerted, and the head does not advance, the forceps should be removed, and other measures (craniotomy?) be adopted. There can be no doubt that all this is very prudent, and occasionally very commendable; but we must acknowledge that we are not of the opinion that there is any "risk" inseparably connected with the use of the forceps; and believe that an earlier application, before any great tumefaction of the scalp, or swelling or inflammation of the mother's tissues, would be more desirable, not only for the sake of the mother, but for the preservation of the infant. We can perceive no advantage either to mother or child from allowing the labour to be tedious, and inefficient for hours, when a little assistance with the forceps would accomplish far more, with safety to the tissues of the parent and the life of the child. Neither do we approve, as we have already mentioned, of the direction to remove the forceps, if the head does not advance after a few efforts, especially as craniotomy is the necessary result: it is much better to run the risk of compressing the head to a certain extent, that delivery may be accomplished under the hope that the child may even yet survive, than to make its death certain by the perforator. Moreover, we have advised¹ that, if the forceps cannot accomplish the delivery, the head should be perforated without removing the instrument; after which any required degree of compression may be made to effect delivery: the forceps will thus diminish the size of the head, and proportionally lessen the pressure on the pelvic tissues, while, at the same time, there is no danger of their slipping, and they constitute the safest and the most powerful of our extractive instruments.²

With the vectis or lever, Dr. Davis has very little experience; he dreads its employment as a lever, for fear that the mother's tissues would be made a fulcrum, and thereby injured. He regards it, therefore, as a simple tractor, and, of course, as far inferior in this point of view to the

¹ *Vide Principles and Practice of Obstetrics*, by H. L. Hodge, M.D.

² In one instance, Case CXXVII., we are happy to find that Dr. Davis himself adopted this practice, using his "modernized Smellie's forceps" to compress the head after the bones had been broken to pieces by the bone forceps.

forceps. He intimates that it might be occasionally used to promote rotation in some moderate cases, as a tractor, where there is no deformity of the pelvis, and in some instances of brow and face presentations. He makes no allusion to its great value in producing flexion, where the chin has departed too early from the breast, and, as we have already frequently intimated, greatly undervalues its power and its comparative safety in effecting rotation of the head. We see no objections also to its being employed simultaneously both as a lever and tractor, believing that the practitioner's fingers can perform the duty of a fulcrum, without any injurious pressure upon the tissues of the mother. Its use, therefore, should be more frequent.

Before the introduction of the forceps, obstetricians had, in cases of obstructed labour, no other alternatives than craniotomy or podalic version: this last, therefore, was employed in all cases where there was the least hope of preserving the infant. Since Messrs. Smellie and Levret perfected the forceps, version has been very generally abandoned, until 1847, when Dr. (now Sir) James Y. Simpson, in an erudite and ingenious lecture, recalled the attention of the profession to version as a substitute for craniotomy, confirming his views by skilful reasoning and citation of cases. Most practitioners in Great Britain, and many on the Continent, have partially or entirely embraced his views, among others our author. If the question be simply, as it was with our ancestors, between the two operations, craniotomy and version, they and Dr. Simpson are to be justified. Upon that point there can be no dispute: but the question now to be decided is, whether the long forceps or version be preferable, where there is moderate contraction at the brim, and the child still living. Dr. Davis has operated by version in a few cases, where, he says, the long forceps had failed, with safety to the mother, and in one or two instances where the child survived. The subject is important, but we cannot now enter into its discussion; we have delivered our sentiments elsewhere.¹ We may, nevertheless, observe that neither the reason nor the facts adduced by Professor Simpson have satisfied our mind as to the comparative safety or efficiency of version. We do confess that we have always regarded version, especially in contracted pelvis, as more painful and dangerous to the mother than the use of properly constructed forceps in the hands of a skilful and educated practitioner. Statistics seem to confirm this idea, as, according to the tables of Dr. Churchill, one mother perishes in every fourteen cases of version, and but one in thirty-two after the operation by the forceps. As regards the safety of the child, the same tables show that the death of infants is one in every three cases by version, and one in $5\frac{3}{4}$ or 6 cases by forceps operations. These, of course, embrace all reported cases, without reference to the peculiar complication of labour, but they may be regarded as indicating the respective danger of the two operations to mother and child.

In contracted pelvis, we can perceive no reason why, with equal force applied, the head cannot descend presenting the vertex as readily as when the base of the cranium descends first. We do know that this is the ordinary mode of delivery, in the proportion of at least ninety cases in a hundred; that the head can, when the vertex presents, be moulded and compressed by the bearing-down efforts of the mother against the pelvic openings, notwithstanding all the ingenious argumentation of Professor

¹ *Vide Principles and Practice of Obstetrics*, by H. L. Hodge, M. D.

Simpson as to the flattening of the arch of the cranium and the increase of the bi-parietal diameter; and our own experience tells us that, by means of the forceps, children can, not unfrequently, be delivered alive through a contracted brim. It is well known also that the life of the child is far more safe in cases of delay in vertex presentations, where the functions of the cord and placenta are comparatively little disturbed, than in pelvic deliveries, where the intra-uterine circulation of the child ceases as soon as the head reaches the os uteri. The only apparent advantage which can be claimed for version is the great force which can be rapidly applied through the medium of the body and neck of the child, to effect the passage of the head. But this very force is dangerous, often causing injuries to the tissues of the neck, including its bloodvessels and occasionally even the spinal marrow, and often also causing effusion upon the brain, compression of this organ from the indentation or even fracture of the bones of the cranium. That children have survived some of these accidents is no argument against the manifest and great danger incurred, which combine compression upon the cord, and the separation of the placenta, and augment almost indefinitely the risks of version in contracted pelvis. Hence MM. Capuron and Cazeaux state that in all "difficult cases" two-thirds or three-fourths of the children perish.

The repeated failure of the forceps in contracted pelvis in the hands of Dr. Davis and other British practitioners is not easily explained; perhaps it may be owing to the imperfect character of the instruments employed, the want of sufficient leverage dependent upon the short handles of their forceps, or, it may be, from their dread of this "high operation," which may induce them to postpone it too long, or to abandon it too readily after it has been undertaken.

The "*induction of premature labour*," in cases of contracted pelvis, so as to prevent a resort to craniotomy or Cæsarean section, is of the utmost value; the whole world is indebted to Dr. Macaulay and other British obstetricians for the suggestion and establishing of this operation. It was long resisted upon the Continent of Europe, but France and Germany are now among its strong advocates. No one now objects to it, on moral or religious grounds; it is sanctioned by the Church as well as by the profession. Dr. Davis gives many interesting examples of its indispensable value.

The fear now is, that it will be, if it has not already been, abused; it is an operation so readily performed, with such little risk to the mother, that patients and practitioners are tempted, too often on trivial grounds, to excite labour for the benefit or even the caprices of the mother, forgetting their responsibility for the life of the helpless, unconscious fœtus. It is not amiss to reiterate, to the profession, the command, "Thou shalt not kill," and to remind obstetricians that the responsibility of intra-uterine fœtal life rests almost exclusively upon them.

Of course it is impossible to specify the peculiar cases in which the induction of labour is justifiable; it certainly, however, shocks our "moral sense" to hear of one fœtus after another of the same mother being destroyed designedly, not positively to preserve the life of the parent, but merely that she should be saved from the danger of the Cæsarean section—a danger which modern science has greatly diminished. Judging also from our own observations, we cannot sanction the practice of inducing premature labour for the persistent vomiting of pregnancy; it may be possible that one woman in ten thousand may perish from this cause, but let the

principle be sanctioned, doubtless hundreds, even thousands, of infants will be sacrificed because inexperienced practitioners will too readily despair of their patients, and especially because it is so common and even natural that women, under the depressing melancholy, and despairing condition of mind and body generated by the nausea and sickness of pregnancy, will urgently importune for relief, even at the sacrifice of their unborn offspring: they think only of their own wretchedness, and are perfectly oblivious to all their moral responsibilities, either as regards themselves or their children. The friends and nearest relatives, anxious only for the mother, will demand any sacrifice for her welfare, or even immediate comfort: the responsibility of all such cases for the life or the fœtus must rest upon the practitioner alone. We have never seen a case in which the induction of labour would be justifiable, in consequence of the nausea of pregnancy, neither have we known a case, in our own circle of professional practice, or that of our medical friends, where death has resulted from this cause. Sickness of a severe character is often protracted for nine months of utero-gestation, with safety to the parent, while a full grown and well developed infant has rewarded the mother for her tedious sufferings and her mental anxieties.

So also as regards *puerperal convulsions*, there may be cases where the induction of labour may be demanded, but we have not yet seen one, neither can we perceive the necessity, or the philosophy of exciting labour during or after an attack of convulsions: we have always maintained that it is bad practice to superadd the pains and bearing-down efforts with all their attending circumstances, to those irritations which have already induced convulsions: it is adding fuel to the existing flame, especially as this is done when the nervons and vascular systems of the patient are in a disturbed, morbid condition.

Cases of "accidental" or "unavoidable" hemorrhage are often so urgent that labour must be induced for the sake of both parent and child. We are very doubtful whether it should ever be practised for organic diseases of the brain, heart, or lungs, all of which are necessarily fatal, sooner or later, to the mother, and whose progress will seldom be materially hastened by labour, conducted by an experienced and scientific practitioner. If, however, induction of labour should be advisable, it should always be postponed until the child is "viable."

Craniotomy Dr. Davis refers to as the final resource, in almost every instance, of the accoucheur. He seems to have very little faith in the Cæsarean section, stating that out of 77 cases, occurring during 126 years, in Britain, only 10 mothers had survived, and 43 children. Hence, he concludes that in all cases of deformed pelvis, craniotomy is demanded; except when the conjugate diameter is less than one inch and a half, and there be three and a half inches in the long diameter, when of course the Cæsarean section must be performed. Whatever confidence may be placed in the skill of Dr. Davis, or other British accoucheurs, imitating the practice of Mr. Osborn, we cannot be persuaded that craniotomy in the pelvis under two inches in the short diameter is as safe an operation as the Cæsarean section; and hence the range given by Dr. Davis from three inches to one and a half in the conjugate diameter for craniotomy is too great: it should be diminished to two inches, as has been done by most late writers.

As to the mode of operating, there is nothing novel in the practice of Dr. Davis; he is sensible, however, of the dangers of the simple crochet, and recommends the guarded one as proposed by Dr. David D. Davis. He, when the head is to be greatly reduced in size, as in some rare cases, em-

ploys also the osteotomist. He dismisses the cephalotribe of Baudelocque, *neveu*, as of no practical value.

We shall not rehearse all the difficulties and dangers of crochets, simple or guarded, nor recount their terrible and often fatal consequences, these are well known to the profession; but, there is a principle connected with their employment, which has been strangely disregarded: they, and all the variety of craniotomy forceps act simply as *tractors*, they have no direct influence in diminishing the size of the head. This diminution of the cranium, in crochet deliveries, is effected by the passages of the pelvis, through which the head is drawn, and of course at the risk of the tissues lining the cavity of the pelvis: hence, often, inflammation, gangrene, sloughing, &c.

Now, although it is impossible entirely to avoid this pressure, yet if a pair of strong forceps or "compressor cranii" be applied to the sides of the head after perforation is made, the whole vault of the cranium may be so diminished in size that the pressure upon the tissues of the pelvis will be comparatively trifling; the forceps, and not the canal of the pelvis, is the compressing power. Moreover, experience shows that there is no danger of even the scalp being wounded by the fractured bones of the cranium, they are all pressed inward; and also there is no danger, with a well-contrived instrument, of slipping; the more the head is diminished, the more completely and securely is it embraced by the blades of the instrument. Hence, if the deformity is not greater than two and a half inches in the short diameter, a common pair of long forceps may be sufficient; or, if there be a contraction to two inches, the "compressor cranii,"¹ or some other variety of cephalotribe, as recommended in France or Germany, will be efficient. If the deformity be less than two inches, the Cæsarean section is required for the safety of the mother.

Dr. Davis acknowledges that, in some cases, delivery cannot be effected by the crotchet; the vault of the cranium is broken up, and there is no point for fixing the instrument; he says occasionally the foramen magnum can be reached. We are surprised that less is said of passing the crotchet into the mouth of the fœtus, and fixing its point upon the palatine processes of the upper maxillary bone, which would give a good purchase in many cases. Dr. Davis has, in several instances, resorted to version in order to accomplish delivery where the crotchet had failed. Dr. Rambotham, and others, have also been forced to this alternative.

Respecting the cases which imperiously demand this terrible operation in which the child's life is sacrificed, and where the mother perishes upon an average once in 5 or 6, much difference of opinion must necessarily exist. The fact, however, already cited, that whereas in Germany craniotomy was performed but once in about 2,100 cases, and the forceps in every seventh case, while in Dublin craniotomy cases were 1 in 141, and the forceps 1 in 617, clearly indicates that there will be a proportional decrease in the operations with the perforator as those with the forceps become more numerous. There is a disposition with many of the British accoucheurs to enlarge the sphere of forceps operations. Dr. Davis, judging from his reports of private practice, is partial to this instrument, although in his reports from public institutions he gives but 15 in 13,783 deliveries, or 1 in about 919. We are happy to find, however, that his craniotomy operations are by no means so numerous as those of Dr. Collins, being but

¹ *Vide*, Principles of Obstetrics, by Dr. Hodge.

1 in 919. This reduction was probably owing mainly to the resort to premature labour so valuable as a preventive to craniotomy. After an examination, however, of the cases of embryotomy given by Dr. Davis, we must acknowledge our belief that many of them might have had a better result under different treatment. We make this declaration with great diffidence, as it is impossible to form accurate opinions of the true nature of the case from the short description of the circumstances. It is to be observed, also, that many of the instances detailed had been much neglected in the early stages, the patient having been for many hours, and sometimes days, in labour, before proper assistance was obtained; the necessities of the mother, and often the death of the infant requiring immediate resort to the perforator. Still, however, we may ask why in Cases LXXXIX., XCIII., and CXVIII., where the forceps had been applied to the head, delivery could not be effected? We see no satisfactory answer to this question, in the declaration that the head was somewhat larger or more ossified than usual, or it was thought imprudent to persevere with the forceps when the head did not advance. A good instrument with long handles is really so efficient that a head of ordinary size, when well ossified, can certainly be extracted through the straits of the pelvis when no deformity exists. Experienced accoucheurs limit, therefore, a forceps operation to three inches in the conjugate diameter, declaring that a living child may be born even under this degree of contraction. We, ourselves, have delivered a child whose bi-parietal diameter measured three and seven-eighths inches, while the antero-posterior diameter of the superior strait was little, if any, above three inches. In some instances cited by Dr. Davis, the head had actually passed the superior strait, and was in the cavity of the pelvis; forceps were applied, found inefficient, and removed. Again, we must acknowledge our surprise to read that, in many examples, craniotomy was employed because there was no room for the forceps, as in Cases CXIV. and CXXVI. Perhaps we might imagine a case of this kind, but certainly it must be very rare, except in cases of great deformity, so great as to demand the Cæsarean section. When we speculate regarding the *space* for the introduction of the forceps, we must dismiss the idea of a large, formidable instrument to be pushed through the vulva, but think only of the thinness of each blade of the instrument, say about one-eighth of an inch, and examine whether there be not room enough in some part of the pelvis, to insinuate this thin lamina between the head of the child and the vagina, first upon one side and then upon the opposite, remembering that after the introduction of the blades, if they be properly constructed and adjusted, they may be said to occupy no space, inasmuch as the parietal protuberances, or other prominences of the cranium, and the tissues of the scalp will protrude through the fenestræ of the blades. If the head be "locked" it must be, as Baudelocque says, either in the direction of the bi-parietal diameter, or of the occipito-frontal, between the promontory of the sacrum and the pubis, leaving therefore always sufficient space towards the sides of the pelvis or towards the acetabulum and sacro-iliac symphysis for the introduction of the blades.

There may be doubtless cases also, rare we should imagine, where the swelling and turgescence of the pelvic tissues might render forceps operations unadvisable, and yet the child be still alive; but even in such cases, after a decided resort to all our measures for promoting relaxation and diminishing inflammatory turgescence, the forceps should be preferred at the risk of some injury to the soft parts of the mother, rather than to sacri-

fice the life of her infant. Even this alternative can seldom be prevented, as the child usually perishes before any such dangerous complications have occurred.

We regret that Dr. Davis has not specified more clearly what he means by "impaction," for he employs it several times when there is no deformity either in the head or pelvis, and therefore when the head is not strictly "locked" between the bones of the pubis and sacrum. Hence, "impaction" would seem to indicate simply "arrest" of the head, from deficiency of power or rigidity of the soft parts, or the mere swelling and congestion of the tissues of the scalp and those of the pelvis, all of which might have been partially or completely anticipated by relaxing measures, or by a timely resort to the forceps. It is certainly very injudicious, if the case can be seen in time, not to operate until the swelling, inflammation, fever, &c., have ensued, endangering the welfare of both mother and her child. Exceptions may exist no doubt, but they do not invalidate the rule. We would inquire, therefore, without presenting an answer to our question, whether any of the craniotomy operations detailed by Dr. Davis, might have been avoided by the application of these principles. The induction of premature labour has done much, and we hope that a more scientific employment of the long forceps, especially at the superior strait of the pelvis, will accomplish much more in lessening craniotomy operations, which have been so frequent, proportionally, in British practice.

In speaking of "face presentations," Dr. Davis regards them very justly as more dangerous than cranial, and less than pelvic presentations. The causes of the greater danger he attributes, in the first place, to "their occupying so completely the pelvic space," and secondly, to the pressure upon the neck causing great congestion of the cerebral vessels. The first of these supposed causes is certainly not very obvious, inasmuch as the diameters of the face, and the anterior portion of the cranium are decidedly less than those of the posterior part of the head; and although the neck descends into the pelvis with the occipital region, when the face approximates the perineum, yet the mechanical disadvantage is not great, as the diameters of the superior part of the pelvis are sufficiently large for the accommodation of the occiput and neck, while the face and forehead can readily pass through the inferior outlet and the os vagina without any impediment from the neck. The second supposed cause of danger is more plausible, but at the same time cannot be much greater than in vertex presentations, for in both cases there is great congestion of all the vessels of the head when the labour is delayed. We would therefore attribute the danger of face presentations rather to their greater tediousness. This is owing to the uterine forces acting through the medium of the child's neck, and therefore in this case are not spent directly, but indirectly upon the head. Hence, power is lost, or rather wasted, and, of course, labour is more tedious, and the danger to the child greater. Dr. Davis gives us no details as to the mechanism of face presentations, dwelling chiefly upon the fact that in the posterior mental positions of the face, the chin very universally rotates towards the pubis. Dr. Davis met with one case at the Middlesex Hospital where the child, at full term, but decomposed, was delivered with the chin posteriorly; and his friend and colleague, Dr. Hicks, succeeded in delivering an infant (whether large or small is not mentioned) alive with the forceps, under the same circumstances.

Dr. Davis states that the first and second positions of the face are "analogues," or, as the French would express it, "deviated presentations" of

the first and second of the cranium. This is true, but it must create some confusion in the mind of the student to be immediately told that the chin rotates towards the pubis, precisely, and in the same manner as the occiput in vertex presentations, not, it is clear, as in those of the first and second to which attention was directed, but as in third and fourth. Thus, although the first position of the face is a deviation from that of the first position of the vertex, it is manifest that the mechanism of delivery is analogous to that of the third position.

It is to be regretted that the beautiful mechanism of labour, so minutely detailed by many of the modern writers since Madame Lachapelle, has not been more fully portrayed by Dr. Davis, as evincing the wonderful provision made for the safety of the infant, and justifying modern accoucheurs in trusting so much to the natural powers in cases of face presentations. We cannot, however, join with those who regard them as a mere variety of normal labours; the child is in more danger, because power is lost, thus causing delay, and because, in some instances, the rotation will occur of the chin posteriorly, and which, with the ordinary relative position of the head to the pelvis is very universally fatal to the infant, and very dangerous to the mother.

We cannot agree, therefore, with Dr. Davis in always leaving such cases to the natural processes, until the patient be exhausted or the head no longer advances. If the physician be called in time, after the os uteri has dilated, and when the face has not passed through this opening, we see no valid objection, especially if the patient be anæsthetized, to resort to "version by the vertex," that is, to introduce the hand and pass the fingers over the occiput, so as to produce flexion of the head, and the descent of the vertex. This is an operation, under the circumstances mentioned, easily effected, and delivers the mother and child from all the peculiar dangers incident to a face presentation. We cannot but think that the "version of the vertex" would have saved much suffering, difficulty, and danger if it had been adopted in Case XXXIX., reported by Dr. Davis. Dr. Davis was called to this case two days after labour commenced, and four hours after the arrest of the head; the os uteri was well dilated, no pyrexia, vagina soft, secreting mucus, head presenting, so that the "left brow and eye (were) behind the pubes; I could easily reach the adjacent side of the nose." An attempt was made to elevate the face by the index and middle finger against the os frontis: this failed. Three hours were allowed to elapse, trusting to nature. The bearing-down efforts were powerful, but causing no advance; there was protrusion of the scalp, and the patient was already much exhausted with her efforts. The oblique forceps were now resorted to, to alter the presentation; the blades were passed "along the sides of the pelvis, using for the occipito-lateral region the short blade;" they were easily locked, and, continues Dr. Davis, "made traction during each pain; at the same time I gave a rotary movement to the head, so as to raise the brow and depress the vertex." All this is rather enigmatical; it does not appear exactly to what parts of the head the blades were applied, as they were directed to the sides of the pelvis, but as the short blade was directed to the lateral occipital region (pubic or sacral side?), the long blade was applied to the opposite frontal region. Traction, under these circumstances of partial or complete extension of the head, would tend mechanically to bring down the forehead rather than the occiput, but by some peculiar but not very intelligible kind of rotary motion, Dr. Davis succeeded in bringing down the occiput, and of course elevating the face, adding in his "remarks"

that the "compressing power of the forceps contributed to this favourable change." The child was delivered with the occiput posteriorly and face to pubis, which, according to the usual language of Dr. Davis, indicated delivery as in the third position of the vertex, when the posterior rotation of the occiput ensues. The child was born asphyxiated, but recovered, and mother did well.

Dr. Davis deserves credit for his peculiar skill in managing the forceps, as is shown by the favourable result of the cases, but in our judgment, if version by the vertex had been resorted to at his first visit, he would have been saved great trouble and anxiety, the patient would have escaped three hours of agonizing pain, so great as to cause exhaustion, and risking inflammation of her tissues, while the tumefaction and protrusion of the scalp of the child, and the dangers of its asphyxiated condition, would have been obviated. There would have been no necessity for the manipulation with the forceps, or for the "rotary motions" given to the head of the child. It may be remarked, *en passant*, that it is not correct language to term this a "brow presentation," for it is stated expressly that the brow and left eye were "*behind*" the pubis. Of course the occipital protuberance was towards the sacrum, the anterior fontanelle towards the centre of the pelvis. Hence the occipito-frontal diameter corresponded to the oblique diameter of the pelvis; the presentation, therefore, was one of the sinciput or anterior fontanelle.

Nevertheless, it is comparatively very rare that the patient, in case of face deliveries, is seen early enough to resort to "version by the vertex." Hence the rule generally adopted is to leave the further delivery to nature's effort. This rule seldom requires any modification in the third and fourth positions of the face, *i. e.*, in the mento-anterior positions. We do maintain, however, that in the first and second positions (*i. e.*, mento-posterior) the natural efforts ought not to be entirely trusted, although there is usually a disposition for the chin to rotate anteriorly, yet this does not always occur; the head may be arrested, the child may perish, and craniotomy be demanded. There is also danger of the chin rotating posteriorly, which is still more frequently serious to the child, and even to the parent, for though we read of living children being born, as in the case of Dr. Hicks, by means of the forceps, &c., yet it can hardly occur unless the head be proportionally small. With a full development of the head a favourable delivery, chin posteriorly, ought not to be anticipated. If to these reasons we add the continual and protracted sufferings of the mother, the risk of inflammation, of fever, or of exhaustion, it is to our minds evident that as soon as the face descends through the superior strait, the practitioner should facilitate the rotation of the chin anteriorly by pressing on the pubic side of the cranium, with one or more fingers, so as to cause its rotation posteriorly, while the chin and tracheal portion of the neck are determined anteriorly, when delivery will ensue without any special resistance, the diameter of the head then corresponding favourably to those of the inferior strait and of the os vaginæ.

In this connection we would fix attention upon Case XXV. where the face presented in the right mento-iliac position, and the os uteri was dilated at 11 P. M. The head descended into the pelvis for two hours; and no advance was subsequently made for four hours, when Dr. Davis was called. The pains were weak, and considerable uterine congestion existed. Venesection was very efficacious in relieving this congestion, and delivery was effected in the course of one hour by the strong bearing-down efforts of the

mother; the child perished, and the mother did well. This case is interesting in showing the influence of the lancet in re-exciting the dormant powers of the uterus in cases of congestion, and also in confirming the idea that face presentations should not be left entirely to nature, for there is reason to believe that the child's life might have been preserved in this case, not only by an early resort to the lancet, but also by facilitating the rotatory motion of the head.

In Case XXVII. we have a favourable account of a natural labour, face presenting in the left mento-iliac position. Dr. D. was called at 9½ P. M., the os uteri not being then fully dilated. "Labour proceeded steadily through the night." Dr. D. was again summoned the following morning at half-past nine: no assistance was rendered, and the woman was soon delivered of a living child, both parties doing well. We must ask, whether many hours of suffering and danger, and the consequent anxieties would not have been spared to the parent, if pressure by the fingers had been made upon the left side of the head, so as to facilitate rotation of the chin to the pubis, a pressure which could have done no mischief either to mother or child.

Case XXVI. is very rare, and of course very interesting. The left brow, eye, and side of the nose were distinctly felt at the commencement of labour, but as the labour advanced, they receded and the occiput was found presenting. This spontaneous conversion of a brow or face presentation, or, as we should characterize it, an anterior fontanelle presentation into one of a vertex, is not, however, to be anticipated, but gives sanction to the practice we have recommended of imitating this process artificially, by resorting to "version by the vertex," when the head is high up.

In the statistics, Dr. D. states that out of 13,783 deliveries, there were 123 face presentations, being nearly one in 113: of these, 121 were delivered without assistance, one alive by the forceps, and one still-born by turning. Of the 123 children, 11 were still-born, being about 9 per cent.

Under the head of preternatural presentations, Dr. D. includes two varieties. 1st, Pelvic; 2d, Transverse. We prefer arranging pelvic deliveries under the head of Natural Labour, so as to indicate to the student the idea that assistance is seldom required. Dr. D. divides pelvic presentations into four positions, corresponding to those of the vertex. In the first, or first abdomino-posterior position (left sacro-anterior), Dr. D. describes the mechanism of labour with considerable accuracy, adopting, however, the idea of Naëgele that the hips descend not parallel but obliquely to the inferior strait; that in this first position the left hip is the lowest, and is really the presenting part, although, he says, the raphe of the buttocks corresponds nearly to the left oblique diameter. This view we think incorrect, for although the left hip is more readily felt, being nearer the vulva, yet as regards the brim of the pelvis, it is on a level with its fellow, and that the true presenting part of the pelvis of the child is the region of the coccyx, which is opposed to the central portion of the pelvis. Rotation of the hips ensues, the left approximating the pubic arch implying a twist in the loins, which Dr. D. does not expressly acknowledge, but virtually admits, as he says the shoulders do not rotate at the same time. The hips pass through the inferior strait and vulva, their long diameter parallel to the coccy-pubic, which Dr. D. believes is usually the case, in opposition to Naëgele, who contends here also for the obliquity of the hips. The shoulders follow the hips in rotation, and in having their long diameter corresponding to that of the inferior strait: the head passes the inferior strait obliquely as regards the

pelvis of the mother; and also we find Dr. Davis saying, obliquely as regards the occipito-frontal diameter, for after bearing-down efforts, the sub-occipital diameter corresponds to the right oblique of the brim, and eventually to the coccy-pubal of the inferior strait. Respecting the power by which the head of the child is forced down, Dr. D. is not sufficiently precise, but it is important for the student to remember that the uterine contractions have no influence after the head has descended into the pelvis, the head being actually out of the uterus; but the power depends entirely on the voluntary efforts of the mother. Neither can we believe that anything is gained by what Dr. D. terms "the elastic reaction of the vaginal walls." We never could discover any evidence of contraction in the distended or relaxed condition of the vagina, and although there is a "recoil" of the perineal tissues, owing partly to their elasticity, but especially to their muscularity, yet such recoil does not occur until after the transit of the parietal protuberances, when, of course, the head is virtually delivered. The only powers therefore, by which the head is expelled at the conclusion of pelvic deliveries depend on the muscular contractions of the parietes of the abdomen. The lateral course of the spine, during the transit of the hips, is also noticed by Dr. Davis.

In the abdomino-anterior positions, the mechanism of labour, as regards the hips and shoulders, is not materially different from that already stated; but the descent of the head, in a state of flexion, with the face and forehead towards the acetabulum is usually attended with rotation of the face backwards, and the occiput forwards, so as to bring it to the pubic arch, as in original sacro-anterior positions. Dr. D. seems to believe this is always the case, as he does not notice those instances where the occiput rotates towards the sacrum, and the os frontis under the pubis. He quotes Naëgele for a case which has been reported by other authorities, where in these sacro-posterior positions the chin, having departed from the breast, is hooked up behind the symphysis pubis. It being there arrested, the occiput is forced to descend along the posterior margin of the pelvis, and is delivered first.

As to the frequency of pelvic deliveries, including feet and knees, there were 243 in 13,783 deliveries, being nearly 1 in 57. The danger of pelvic deliveries is much greater than those of cranial or the face, owing, says Dr. D. and most authorities, to the pressure made upon the cord, but probably the chief danger arises from the fact that the placenta is usually detached by the contractions of the uterus, which expel the head from its cavity, therefore causing the suspension of the placental functions while the head is still in the pelvis.

In the management of breech labours the directions of Dr. Davis are very judicious, avoiding unnecessary interference with the progress of delivery, maintaining therefore the bag of waters unruptured as long as possible, avoiding traction efforts upon the body of the child, and encouraging the bearing-down efforts of the mother, so as to augment the flexion of the head.

Should assistance be demanded, he prefers the fillet to the blunt hook. Should the head be delayed by its extension, Dr. D. recommends the fingers of one hand to the chin, and those of the other to the occiput, to increase flexion. It is much better to place the fingers upon the upper jaw, or even, if possible, over the whole face of the child, rather than to the chin. There is one rule, however, very universally neglected by teachers, but which we regard as of immense importance, viz: to carry the body of the child forwards, so that its spine may be nearly at right angles to the body of the

pubis; *then* traction on the body of the child, made in this direction, will greatly assist the fingers on the face in causing flexion, as the occiput will impinge against the pubic arch. Many lives of infants may be saved, in difficult cases, by this manœuvre, even without the assistance of the forceps.

In abdomino-anterior positions of the child, the delivery of the head is not necessarily attended with much difficulty, as the rotation of the chin backwards generally occurs; nevertheless, as delays here are dangerous, this process of rotation, if not rapid, should be assisted: but we are surprised to find Dr. D. advising that "when the breech has escaped, give the trunk the required direction, so that the face shall look obliquely backwards in its descent, corresponding to the nearest synchondrosal point." This is objectionable, because, in the first place, it is too soon to operate as soon as the breech is delivered, the shoulders not yet having rotated towards the pubis; but the great objection lies that all such rotation of the body of the child is at the risk of twisting the neck, and, of course, injuring the spinal marrow. Rotation, therefore, should be effected not by means of the body of the child, but by the fingers of the operator, acting upon the side of the face, after the shoulders are delivered: this is time enough, and then, the head being extra-uterine, there will be no obstacle in effecting its rotation. If, however, this rotation of the face backwards be not effected, how is delivery to be accomplished? Dr. D. does not notice this question, which is very important; for, if traction be made, as is usually done, in the direction of the axis of the vagina, terrible results may ensue to the child, and even to the parent. But, if the body of the child be carried far back, so that its spine shall be nearly at a right angle with the sacrum and perineum, then traction will be safe and efficient: the occiput resting on the perineum and coccyx, the face and forehead will more readily descend under the arch, and this flexion of the head may be facilitated by pressure with the fingers on the upper maxillary bones, or on the os frontis—the head being thus made to present favourable diameters at the outlet.

Footling and knee presentations are less frequent, and perhaps less favourable, than breech presentations. In the management, Dr. D. observes that there is no special difference.

In cases of obstructed labour, in pelvic presentations, embryotomy, and sometimes craniotomy, are of course demanded, and occasionally, adds Dr. D., "bi-section of the neck."

Dr. D., after some notices of the frequency and causes of transverse presentations, intimates that, without assistance, the child will generally perish; nevertheless, he countenances the idea that children may be born by spontaneous evolution, with the shoulder under the arch of the pubis, as described by Dr. Douglas, if they be premature or of small size. He quotes Boer and Barlow, and might have quoted Velpeau and others, in confirmation also of version in the superior pelvis, as described by Dr. Denman. This spontaneous version, at or above the brim of the pelvis, should be studied by obstetricians, as the whole mechanism is important, and illustrates as well as confirms the value of artificial version, even before the os uteri has dilated, by what is now called the bi-manual operation. Dr. D. records of transverse presentations, 1 in every 284 deliveries.

The usual management is recommended by Dr. D., resorting to version by the feet, trying first the bi-manual method, or, if this fail, introducing the hand into the cavity of the uterus, and bringing down the feet. He does not recommend "version by the vertex" or head, which, by the bi-

manual method, is often more easily effected than podalic version. Our own countryman, Dr. M. B. Wright, of Cincinnati, in 1850, recommended cephalic version, even after the arm had been expelled, and powerful contractions of the uterus had ensued; his plan being to return the arm, and then make pressure on the top of the shoulder, on the side opposite to which the head is displaced, thus elevating the shoulder, while a hand applied to the upper and lateral part of the uterus determines the pelvis of the child towards the side where the head is located.

Should the uterus be powerfully contracted, Dr. D. has derived advantage from the relaxing influences of chloroform. If these measures fail, embryotomy must be employed. Dr. Davis gives some twenty cases illustrative of his practice.

There is one very important principle, in the management of embryotomic cases, which has not governed our author, and which, indeed, has attracted little attention from obstetric authorities. We allude to "version by the breech," after or even before evisceration.¹ It is the object of every practitioner to resort to version in all transverse presentations, knowing that the infant cannot be brought down double in the cavity of the pelvis, but that one end of the foetal ellipse should descend first, so that the long axis of the foetus should correspond to that of the obstetric canal. Why neglect this principle in embryotomy? Why, as was done by Dr. D., in Case CXLIII., after evisceration, drag upon the arm of the child to accomplish delivery, necessitating the passage of the head, and of the eviscerated body, simultaneously through the canal of the pelvis, greatly endangering the tissues, and welfare of the mother? This mode of operating, also, will often be ineffectual, as in Case CXLVI., where, traction upon the body failing, Dr. D. had to divide the dorsal spine to complete the delivery. So also, in Case CL., where traction on the spine, by means of the crotchet, failed, and he was obliged to resort to amputation of the arm, and then of the neck. The true principle is, to pass the crotchet, whether sharp or blunt, to the pelvis of the infant, either within or without the body, and thus, by an oblique traction, cause the breech to descend, effecting in this way an artificial imitation of spontaneous version, and precisely in accord with version by the feet when the child is alive. In Case CXLIV., Dr. Davis unwittingly performed this operation, for his crotchets were so fixed that, when traction was made, a preponderating influence was exerted on the lower portion of the ellipse, causing the breech to descend, while the shoulders and the head were retained, as Dr. Davis says, in "spontaneous evolution," or more correctly, it should be said, in "spontaneous version," as described by Dr. Denman. Hence, the rule of practice should be never to apply the crotchets to the spine, but always to some portion of the pelvis of the foetus.

A few cases are detailed where division of the neck was necessary to effect delivery. Dr. Davis prefers to the decapitator of Dr. Ramsbotham, a long pair of curved scissors for this operation, an instrument which we have always employed. We cannot perceive the necessity, however, except in cases of deformity, of resorting to craniotomy for the removal of the head after section of the neck. Under these circumstances, perforating the head is more difficult and dangerous than when fixed by the body of the child. We have seldom found any difficulty in removing the head by means of the hand, as soon as the occipito-mental diameter is made to correspond

¹ *Vide* Principles and Practice of Obstetrics by Dr. Hodge.
No. CIV.—Oct. 1866. 30

with the axis of the pelvis. If this be impracticable, the crotchet, fixed in the foramen magnum, or into the mouth of the infant, will answer, or occasionally the forceps may be employed.

The opinions of Dr. Davis respecting the *Cæsarean operation* have been already stated. He prefers to imitate Dr. Osborn in resorting to embryotomy if there be $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches by $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches in the pelvic openings, as safer than the Cæsarean section. His opinions have not been altered by the publication of Dr. Radford's pamphlet (in 1865), recommending a more frequent recourse to the Cæsarean section; Dr. R. stating that 10 women out of 77, or 13 per cent. were saved, and 43 children were preserved.

In the present improved state of the science of obstetrics, taking into consideration the unexpected success, which has attended gastrotony in ovarian and even uterine diseases, and the declaration of many of the Continental surgeons that gastro-hysterotomy has, under favourable circumstances, been successful in the proportion of 40 or 50 per cent. to the mother, and 50 to 70 per cent. for the children, we think that the whole subject demands a more minute investigation, especially as to the question, whether the great fatality of the operation is not mainly dependent upon an improper delay in its performance. Statistics are required as to the relative number of cases in which hysterotomy has been performed during the first or second stage of labour, before or after the bearing-down efforts have ensued, before or after the rupture of the membranes, and also as to the physical condition of the woman prior to the operation; and whether any other measures have been previously adopted for her safety or for that of her child. It should be determined also, if possible, whether anæsthesia contributes to the safety of the operation. We are inclined to the opinion, that gastro-hysterotomy, if performed during the first stage of labour while the patient is in a good mental and physical condition, and under the anæsthetic influence, would prove so much more successful, both to mother and child, that the question whether it or craniotomy is to be preferred, would be reduced to very narrow limits; and that the Cæsarean section would no longer be regarded as the most dangerous of obstetric operations. It is contended also by the advocates for the Cæsarean section that although the life of the child is comparatively unimportant as respects the mother, yet that its interests should not be entirely set aside in considering this subject. Hence, as at least 50 to 60 per cent. of children are saved by gastro-hysterotomy, it is inferred that a woman who has had one child sacrificed by craniotomy, for her own safety, ought to be subjected, in case of future pregnancies, to some risk for the sake of her children. Statistics, however, are yet wanting to elucidate this delicate point of professional science and ethics: in the mean time we must allow ourselves to be influenced by the eloquent appeal of M. Caseaux on behalf of the woman with all her social and religious responsibilities, when placed in opposition to those of an unconscious fœtus, whose life, even if preserved by hysterotomy, is so often evanescent, statistics exhibiting the melancholy fact that one-half perish under five years of age.

As to "Anæsthetics in Midwifery," Dr. Davis advocates their great importance, giving the preference to chloroform as being more certain and rapid in its effects, and, in his experience, without any fatal consequences. He has no doubt of its great influence in promoting relaxation of the uterine and pelvic tissues, thus acting as a substitute for venesection and opium, and preparing the patient for a more successful employment of required manual or instrumental assistance. The operation of craniotomy

may, in some instances, be prevented by its timely employment. He acknowledges, however, that it ought not to be given in natural labours, as they might be delayed, and as hemorrhage might result. He has known many instances where hemorrhage resulted from this circumstance, and would countenance, therefore, the advice of Dr. Beattie, of Dublin, of exhibiting ergot where chloroform was employed.

In this country, the practice is not very diverse; ether, however, is generally preferred, as no death results from its employment, while occasionally death from chloroform is reported in the medical journals. It is comparatively seldom given in natural labours; it is reserved for states of great nervous excitability, for inordinate uterine contractions, and for rigidity of the pelvic tissues. It is also employed frequently to facilitate the operation of turning, and also in forceps operations; seldom, however, except perhaps in version, is complete anaesthesia desired. Our own opinion is, that it is a more valuable agent than opium in diminishing nervous and uterine excitements, and therefore most important; but, at the same time, it should be used simply to diminish and not to suspend the sensibilities of the patient. She should always be conscious of the existence of her labour, and remain under the command of her accoucheur, even during the progress of artificial delivery, whether by the hand or by instruments.

In this critical analysis of the very interesting work of Dr. Davis, we have freely expressed our opinions as to the theory and practice which he has promulgated, endeavouring to point out the peculiarities of British opinions, as compared with those entertained in France and America, especially on points involving the mechanism of labour, and the treatment of obstructed deliveries. Notwithstanding the freedom of our remarks, they are presented with much diffidence, knowing that it is impossible to judge accurately of cases which have not been seen, or to determine positively on the relative advantages of different modes of treatment, especially as the author of the present work is evidently an obstetrician of much science, and enlarged experience, and who appears to have been a most successful practitioner. We trust, however, that some good will result, by fixing attention on disputed points, and exciting a more united and thorough investigation of the whole question of the mechanism of labour, and of course operative midwifery.

H. L. H.

ART. XVIII. — *Estudos sobre a Diabete, Pelo Socio Correspondente, Dr. Abel Jordão.*

Studies on Diabetes, by Dr. Abel Jordão, communicated February 24, 1863, and published, in the "Memorias da Academia Real das Sciencias de Lisboa." pp. 200, quarto. Lisbon, 1865.

DR. ABEL JORDÃO has devoted himself to the study of diabetes for nine years. He has published several articles in relation to it, and as they have been approved by those members of the profession whose judgment he respects, he resolved to publish in one volume all that he had learned respecting this affection by reading and experience. The results of Dr. Jordão's researches seem to us to be so interesting that we shall lay before our readers a brief summary of them.

The first "Study" in the series is on symptomatology. A paragraph is devoted to a minute description and history of each symptom, with references in foot-notes to numerous authorities.

Diabetes is defined, an apyretic disease, always characterized by the presence of glycosé in the urine, almost always by impotence, increase of the urinary secretion, appetite, and thirst, and often by suppression of transpiration, wakefulness, and emaciation.

Dr. Jordão divides the disease, in reference to its causes, into traumatic and internal, and in reference to its course or progress, into periodic, intermittent, and continued.

His bibliography of the subject, chronologically arranged, beginning with Constantinus Africanus in 1536, and ending with Marshal de Cabri, in 1864, includes 294 titles.

Symptoms of Diabetes.—1. Emaciation is not very manifest in a majority of cases till towards the close, although sometimes it is rapid. Femel saw a fat man attacked with this disease become lean in eight days; Heinskin mentions a patient whose weight fell from 92 to 67 kilogrammes in five months; Dufour (*Arch. Gén. de Méd.*, 1861, p. 69) speaks of one who, in some months, lost 54 kilogrammes. Home cites a patient with this disease who increased his weight 48 grammes daily from ten o'clock in the morning till noon, and decreased it 126 grammes from four till six in the afternoon.

Continuous emaciation accompanied by voracious appetite is one of the phenomena which has most attracted observation. It is conjectured to be due to the irregularity or exaggeration in the sugar-making function of the liver.

Skin.—In diabetes the skin is generally pallid, but it is not rare to see it retain its natural colour. Sometimes it is icteric. In two cases Dr. Jordão saw it bronzed.

The skin is generally dry; at times it simulates the consistence of parchment and becomes less hygroscopic. Dryness, however, is not constant. In this respect the skin is seen to vary in the same patient, and sometimes it remains normal. Ordinarily the covering of the chest and belly continues natural while that of the extremities is affected with dryness; there is an abated vitality of the skin; the hairs dry and fall.

In this malady the skin is very often the seat of eruptions of diverse kinds, some of which are perilous to the patient. Those which generally occur are porrigo, lichen, psoriasis, herpes, impetigo, furunculus, and anthrax. The relations between diabetes and these skin affections has not been fully studied.

Direct connection or association of anthrax with diabetes was first noticed by Cheselden in 1768, by Latham in 1811; and in 1840, Prout again called attention to it. Dr. Aguiño da Fonseca, of Pernambuco (Brazil), assures us that anthrax is very frequent in that city, and its aspect is of such peculiar character that it is regarded to be diagnostic of diabetes. Ordinarily one only appears; this terminates to be followed by a second, a third, and so on successively, sometimes reaching to a great number; in one instance twenty-two were counted. As a rule, they appeared on the back of the neck and trunk, with very small orifices, smaller than those of ordinary anthraxes, with reverted edges, having an internal cavity like that of a cyst. These tumours easily suppurate, the pus is very liquid, chocolate colour, exhaling the odour of fermented honey, and probably contained sugar, as did that from an abscess, which was analyzed by Capezuoli.

Facility in the production of pus, its colour and odour are, according to Dr. Fonseca, characteristic signs of the existence of diabetes, signs which cannot be ignored. The first anthrax which appears is generally not serious; but those which follow are so; their presence always aggravates the prognosis, especially if opened with a bistoury, as that practitioner observes. In such cases gangrene is immediately set up, advances rapidly, and sometimes the patient succumbs in the course of a few hours; Messrs. Menestrel and Kuchenmeister corroborate this statement.¹

The skin in diabetes also suffers from a kind of erysipelas, a papulous eruption of an undetermined nature, a predisposition to phlegmonous erysipelas, a tuberculous eruption, general or limited, the tubercles slightly resembling smallpox pustules and containing a caseous matter.

Diabetic gangrene is another complication. It is preceded by the appearance of small rose-coloured spots beneath which depressions in the derma may be easily felt. Though out of proper order, the author speaks here of necroses occurring in diabetic patients—ulcers of the legs are not infrequent.

The secretion of the skin of diabetics is generally diminished, but sometimes, after more or less exercise, cutaneous transpiration is abundant. The quantity of sweat secreted in a day is stated to have been in one case 1444, and in another patient 1680 grammes. These perspirations are sometimes partial, and sometimes they occur at particular periods of the day. The presence of sugar in the sweat of one diabetic was manifest before it appeared in the urine, although all other symptoms of diabetes were present.

3. Sensibility suffers slightly. Anæsthesia of the posterior cervical region has been noticed: and exaggerated sensibility over the spine or one side has been observed.

4. Audition is usually normal.

5. The sense of smell is impaired slightly in some cases, probably from dryness of the Schneiderian membrane and diminution of its secretion.

6. The taste, though generally normal, is in some cases perverted. Sometimes the patient has a persistent taste of sugar in his mouth.

7. Among the lesions of vision in this disease cataract is noticed; but happily the number of cataracts occurring in diabetics probably does not exceed two per cent. Amblyopia is more frequently observed, and sometimes complicated with diplopia. It occurs to a slight degree in the commencement of the disease, lasts three or four months, and disappears, but there is liability to relapse. Serious amblyopia, which only appears at an advanced stage of the malady, invades both eyes, but unequally. Its pro-

¹ Dr. Jordão appends to his work a note to say that when he wrote his account of furunculus and anthrax he was persuaded that these two affections were especial or peculiar in diabetes, but since, he has observed some particulars which have not been heretofore presented.

In individuals who suffer from cerebral softening in the chronic form the appearance of furuncles is frequent. They occur in all regions, but chiefly on the nucha, and are less painful than they usually are in persons not thus afflicted. They suppurate readily. The pus is mixed with a large quantity of dark blood which imparts to it a chestnut colour, and renders it very liquid. Their parietes and edges are of an obscure red, like the commencement of true external gangrene. Ordinarily they heal slowly, requiring twenty or more days, and their cicatrices long remain deep coloured spots like ecchymoses.

Dr. Jordão believes himself first to have noticed this fact, which he regards as a new symptom of cerebral and spinal softening, and although it lessens the diagnostic value of furuncle in diabetes, he thinks it important because it shows that this affection is affiliated with a lesion of the nervous system.

gress is generally slow. By means of the ophthalmoscope the papilla of the optic nerve is seen to be of a pearly white, diminished in volume, at times manifestly depressed or excavated, and commonly deformed in its circumference. The vessels emerging from it are tortuous, and the arteries less developed than the veins; the trunks of the vessels are quite visible, but their extremities are not easily followed. Sometimes signs of retinal hemorrhages having their seat at the angle of bifurcation of the vessels, or more rarely in their course, are noticed; some suffer fatty degeneration, but in some cases of amblyopia no lesions are discoverable.

8. The locomotive functions of persons affected with diabetes are slowly performed, and almost always accompanied with fatigue, which generally increases proportionably with the progress of the malady, till at last the patient is scarcely able to move. In the commencement of the disease patients complain of weakness while still possessing an aspect of health. Palsies are not very rare. Convulsions and tumours are also noticed. Cramps are quite frequent. Neuralgias, sometimes of the sciatic and sometimes of the intercostal nerves occur, as well as muscular pains.

9. Speech is rarely affected, but the voice sometimes becomes hoarse towards the close.

10. The intellectual faculties remain normal; but in advanced stages the patient becomes sad, apathetic, or irascible.

11. Almost all diabetics suffer from insomnia.

12. In general the appetite is strong, and at times increases to a true boulimia. In one case the daily food taken amounted to 13,000 grammes; and in two others 3,000 grammes of bread and 1 kilogramme of meat were eaten daily. It is asserted that diabetics prefer sugar and fecula to other articles of diet, but careful observation does not establish the assertion.

13. Thirst is generally excessive. The quantity of liquid taken is very variable: it is stated at from 4,250 to 45,000 grammes daily. It has been conjectured that the quantity of liquid drunk is in some degree in proportion to the quantity of amylaceous food consumed, but investigation does not sustain this notion. The phenomenon has not yet been satisfactorily explained.

14. The mouth exhales a peculiar, nauseous odour, which Dr. Jordão compares to that of iodine. The gums are pale and soft; sometimes, however, they are florid, spongy, painful, and bleed easily. The teeth in some cases become loose and fall out. Odontalgia from dental caries is frequent. In the beginning of the disease the tongue is moist and natural, but later is dryer. The tongue is usually flat. Aphthæ sometimes appear on it and on the parietes of the mouth. The buccal mucus is almost always acrid or rough as if it had been subjected to the action of tannin, especially on the palatine arch, and its epithelium is easily detached, forming white spots looking a little like aphthæ. The mouth is almost always dry, and the saliva viscid and alkaline. In some cases it contains sugar, but not in all.

15. Patients sometimes complain of a sense of strangulation. The pharynx is often injected and anginas are frequent in the onset of the disease.

16. Dyspepsia is frequent in the commencement of the malady, and in some cases the liver is hypertrophied.

17. Ordinarily patients suffer from constipation which alternates with diarrhœa which is often fatal when it occurs in the advanced stages of diabetes. Deficiency in the quantity of intestinal secretions, and in the

quality of the bile is supposed to account for constipation in this malady. The feces are usually of a lighter colour than natural, and sometimes horribly fetid. In the commencement of some cases they exhale an ammoniacal odour. They contain sugar and sometimes an increased amount of fatty matter.

18. Respiratory movements are neither accelerated nor retarded. Observations on the products of respiration give no satisfactory results. Proclivity to pulmonary affections seems to be augmented in diabetic patients.

19. The pulsation rarely exceeds 80.

20. The calorific function is abated, and the temperature of the body is below the standard of health.

21. The urinary and genital organs are the seat of erythema in some cases. Prurigo is very frequent. It occurs on the prepuce of men and on the vulva and at entrance of the urethra of women. The prepuce is often swollen, painful, and excoriated. The scrotum is sometimes corrugated, and in some instances the testes are atrophied.

22. The urinary function is performed easily in a great majority of cases; but dysury, strangury, and ischury are noticed by some writers. The desire to urinate recurs very frequently—two or three times an hour in some cases—and is often very urgent.

23. Generally the urine is of a clear straw yellow, or honey colour, but varies in this respect. Its transparency is often interfered with by the presence of mucus, blood, albuminous flakes, uric acid, &c. In some cases it has a chylous aspect.

24. The odour of diabetic urine is said to resemble that of honey, of violets, of hay, of osmazome, of milk, of real, &c., but Dr. Jordão thinks that it is either inodorous or has a nauseous smell; it rarely retains its healthy odour.

25. The taste of diabetic urine, first noticed by Thomas Willis (1667), is sweet, like honey, but in many cases the sweet taste is wanting.

26. In the physiological state, according to Vogel, a well-fed adult, drinking freely, excretes in twenty-four hours from 1,400 to 1,600 grammes, and, drinking moderately, from 1,200 to 1,400 grammes of urine. Relatively to the weight of the body it is estimated that one cubic centimetre of urine is passed hourly for every kilogramme of weight.

In diabetes this quantity is considerably augmented, and is generally a principal symptom, varying from 5,000 to 8,000 grammes. The largest quantity well authenticated is 14,000 grammes. In one case in thirty-nine days the daily quantity varied irregularly from 4,000 to 10,000 grammes. In another case the daily quantity varied irregularly in the course of fifty-three days, during which observations were made in 1864 by Ordaz Mascarenhas, in Lisbon, from 1,500 to 25,000 grammes. But the received opinion is that the quantity of urine excreted does not exceed the quantity of liquids drunk by the patient.

27. The temperature of the urine, like that of the body, is diminished.

28. The density of normal urine, stated differently by ten authors, is from 1.017 to 1.074. It varies daily, and often at different periods of the same day in diabetic patients. In one case, observed by the author during twenty-one consecutive days, it varied irregularly from 1.012 to 1.019. In one case observations were made four times daily during sixteen days, at six and nine o'clock A. M., and at one and eight o'clock P. M., and it was

found to vary on one day from 1.010,500 to 1.014,700, on another from 1.012,600 to 1.021,000, and so irregularly.

29. Microscopic examination of diabetic urine at the moment of emission presents nothing notable; but after it has been voided some time, ferment globules, analogous to those of beer, or of yeast, are observable.

30. The reaction of diabetic urine varies; it will be acid during several successive days, and then be alkaline many days, and again become acid.

31. Under this number eight analyses of diabetic urine are given.

32. The quantity of water in normal urine passed in twenty-four hours, according to Becquerel, is from 800 to 1,500 grammes; and Sheritier says in diabetes the medium quantity is 1995.562 grammes; but our author thinks this is below the average.

33. The solids which physiologically vary from 32.786 to 48.024 grammes are found to be diminished in diabetes, according to Sheritier, Nicholas, and Gueudeville, but according to the analyses of Simon and Percy they are augmented.

34. Urea varies physiologically between 28 and 30 grammes. The amount present in diabetes is said by some to exceed, and by others to be inferior to the normal quantity. This wide difference in the result of observations of different writers, it is suggested by Dr. Jordão, may be due to the process employed to detect it; in this instance urea cannot be ascertained accurately by weight, because it crystallizes with difficulty in the presence of sugar, and in this disease it readily decomposes. Besides, the difference of diet used by patients when the analyses were made is sufficient to account for the diversity of opinion on this point. The quantity of urea varies with the diet and activity of the functions. Change from animal to vegetable diet and the reverse is accompanied by a change in the quantity of urea, being greatest on an exclusively meat diet. In the later period of the disease the urea increases considerably, and is regarded as a fatal sign. Between the density of urine and the quantity of urea present in it there is no relation; its proportion cannot be estimated from this quality. Experiment showed that urine of a density of 1.039 contained 21.50 grammes of urea, while that of a density of 1.035 contained only 5.51 grammes.

35. The normal quantity of uric acid in twenty-four hours, according to Becquerel, is from 0.4 to 0.6 gr. In diabetic urine it is much less, or altogether absent, according to some authorities. The conclusion from most recent observations is that it exerts little influence in this malady.

36. Hippuric acid is augmented in diabetic urine.

37. It is probable that benzoic acid, supposed to be present in diabetic urine, is due to the conversion of hippuric acid.

38. Xanthina is not present in greater or less quantity in diabetic than in normal urine.

39 to 49. Oxalate of lime, free ammonia, phosphates, chloride of sodium, fat, inosite, a peculiar extractive matter, prussiate of iron, creatine and creatinine, acetone, and cholesterine are reported to have been found in diabetic urine by different writers.

50. Albumen is found in the urine of some diabetic patients. Some authorities regard the presence of albumen in diabetic urine as a favourable indication, while others, of no less respectability, consider it alarming. The experiments of Cl. Bernard sustain the former view. He shows that an animal made diabetic by wounding the medulla oblongata, if the wound was high up, might die; but if, from the wound being at a lower point,

albumen appeared in the urine at the same time with the sugar, the morbid phenomena passed off rapidly.

51. Thomas Willis was the first to suspect the existence of sugar in diabetic urine, but Cawley was the first to demonstrate its presence, which he did in 1778 by means of fermentation. Others, in different countries, verified the results of his experiments, and now the presence of sugar in urine is considered the pathognomonic character of diabetes. The nature of this sugar was long doubtful. Grape sugar, prior to crystallization, deviates the plane of polarization to the left; but having been crystallized and then dissolved, it deviates to the right, like cane sugar.

M. Claude Bernard announced that diabetic sugar, which is of the same composition as liver sugar, is decomposed in the vessels seven or eight times more readily than grape sugar; that is, to procure their appearance in the urine, it is necessary to introduce into the bloodvessels seven parts of diabetic, but only one part of grape sugar. Limpert and Falk have confirmed Bernard's observations.

Diabetic sugar is found in the urine of suckling women, as well as in that of pregnant women, towards the close of gestation, and at times in that of old men. According to some experimenters, the presence of glycose is constant in the physiological state. Under certain peculiar circumstances, still in the physiological state, sugar has been observed in urine; after eating asparagus; after the use of cheese and alcoholic drinks; after indigestible food, &c. &c., and after the use of saccharine aliments.

Sugar is found proceeding from the blood formed by decomposition of the principles of urine in it.

Sugar is found in the urine of some persons immediately after having been subjected to anæsthesia through the agency of chloroform or ether, either from cerebral congestion or pulmonary perturbation. Also, in the urine of persons who respire for a certain time an atmosphere containing rather more than the normal proportion of carbonic acid.

In different pathological conditions, without the existence of diabetes, glycose has been observed in the urine. It has been found in the commencement of attacks of intermittents, chiefly of a pernicious character; in cases of facial and sciatic neuralgia; in asthma, hysteria, epilepsy, pleuritis, phthisis, and chronic gastritis; in epileptics after a fit, in delirium tremens, in mania, general paralysis; in infants during dentition; in chronic hydrocephalus; in old gouty and dyspeptic subjects; in acute myelitis, cancer of the uterus, congestion of the liver; in persons who have been struck upon the head, or over the hepatic region, sometimes it is observed transiently in the urine; it has been observed also in cases of individuals while under mercurial treatment for syphilis.

Sugar normally present in urine in different pathological as well as in the physiological states, escapes detection by reagents unless the ebullition is prolonged, and we wait for the cooling.

The quantity of sugar contained in diabetic urine is very variable. Analyses by many authors cited give from 29 to 177.14 grammes of sugar to the 1000 of urine, varying according to the severity, and stage, and complications of the malady. On the approach of death, sugar almost always disappears from the urine. The period of digestion augments the quantity without reference to the nature of the aliment. In incipient diabetes the night urine is often free from sugar.

According to experiments made by Dr. Jordão, the quantity of sugar in the urine varies with the time of examination after eating. In each in-

stance the urine was analyzed on sixteen successive days; the mean of the analyses is given in the following summary:—

Hours after eating.	Quantity of sugar in the urine.
14	43.493 grammes.
4	52.513 “
3½	53.421 “
2½	49.002 “

The largest proportion was found three and a half hours, and the least fourteen hours after eating.

In cases of diabetes in which scarlatina, measles, diarrhœa, smallpox, anthrax, pneumonia, and acute intestinal disease occurred, sugar was diminished, and even disappeared from the urine.

It has been asserted that the quantity of urinary sugar in diabetes is proportionate to the fecula ingested. This notion was combated in 1806 by Manuel Pereira de Graça, but has been recently revived by Bouchardat, and sustained by Schutzeberger. While Dr. Jordão admits that urinary sugar increases with the use of feculas, his own experiments, and the observations of others cited by him led him to declare that Bouchardat's proposition, that the glycose contained in urine is in constant proportion to the amount of amylaceous and saccharine aliments consumed, is fallacious. The density or specific gravity of urine does not indicate the quantity of sugar contained in it, nor is there any regularity in the quantity of sugar daily excreted.

52. Individuals afflicted with diabetes are impotent; the absence of erectile power almost always attracts the attention of patients, and occupies their minds. This symptom possibly indicates the influence of the condition of the medulla in the production of this complaint. To refer impotence in diabetes to general weakness is not admissible, because phthisical and other patients in a condition of great debility are not impotent. It may be due to nervous depression, which is marked in this disease. In some rare and exceptional cases the virile powers continue in the normal state, or are even exaggerated. Marechal de Calvi cites the case of a patient who, in the moment of copulation, felt acute pain, which started from the occipital region and extended over the whole cranium, and was accompanied with great heat in the head. In the early stage, while coition is still possible, seminal ejaculation is so rapid that the act of copulation occupies only a few moments. Observations lead to a conclusion that loss of virile power occurs in the advanced stages of this affection.

Amenorrhœa is frequent in diabetic women. The menstrual flow diminishes gradually, and is suspended entirely in the advanced period of the disease. Sterility is common, though diabetic women do sometimes conceive. It is remarked that they are insensible to venereal pleasures even from the commencement of the disease.

The progress, duration, termination, etiology, pathological anatomy, and comparative pathology of diabetes are considered in the “Second Study,” which is divided into four chapters.

1. In general, diabetes is developed slowly, but sometimes it runs its course rapidly. Following a fall or blow upon the nucha, or other traumatic cause, the disease becomes quickly manifest; but its rate of progress will be influenced by the strength of the cause producing it, and the constitutional powers of the patient. When complicated with certain affections, as gangrene, apoplexy, &c., the disease may run a rapid course. Sometimes

diabetes proceeds from polyuria, at others from attacks of gout, and most frequently occurs without any preceding malady.

It is very difficult, if not impossible, to designate the symptoms which usher in the disease. They are so slight in character and irregular in sequence that the malady often reaches a more or less advanced stage before it is diagnosticated. But it may be said that thirst, derangement of the digestive functions, and polyuria are the first morbid manifestations; all other symptoms, occurring sooner or later, should be considered to be secondary.

The progress of diabetes is marked by three periods, which are neither very distinct nor characteristic, because many symptoms which ordinarily belong to one period are either entirely absent or become manifest in a more or less advanced stage. Dryness of the skin and emaciation, which ordinarily belong to the second period, are not perceptible till the third, and sometimes even they are altogether wanting.

The first period is thus characterized: Thirst sometimes great, especially after eating; slight constipation; dyspepsia in a slight degree, especially after repasts into which feculas enter largely; diarrhœas suddenly following the ingestion of food; slight inspissation of saliva; hæmorrhoidal attacks often followed by hemorrhages; sense of weight in the region of the liver; sense of general weakness; increase of fat; profuse sweating; slight epistaxis; exaggeration of the genital faculties.

The second period: Exaggeration of the symptoms of the first period, except the nasal and rectal hemorrhages; lesions of the gums, caries and pain of the teeth, disturbed vision, insomnia, emaciation, diminution of the genital faculties, subjective sensations of heat and cold, dryness of the skin, and some nervous phenomena.

Third period: Exaggeration of the symptoms of the second; vomitings, diarrhœa frequently alternating with constipation, more or less decided intellectual disturbance, serous infiltrations.

Though not mentioned in the books, Dr. Jordão says, that increase of fat and rectal hemorrhages are noted generally in the first period of diabetes.

When the complaint terminates favourably, the amelioration is slow or rapid, according to the treatment and period of the disease; affections of the gums and polyuria are the last symptoms to disappear.

The progress of the disease is suspended sometimes by different causes, but only to be resumed. It is supposed to be modified by the seasons of the year.

Diabetes exists under different types. The *alternate*, in which the complaint gives place to another, as gout. The *periodic*, in which the disease occurs after intervals of irregular duration of perfect health. The *intermittent*, in which the affection returns at determined periods after a respite, and the *continued*, which is the most common. These types are said to exist under different forms, called nervous, consumptive, abdominal, and thoracic, seemingly dependent on the constitutional proclivities of the patient.

2. The duration of diabetes is almost always long, unless complicated with other diseases. It is often many years in running its course.

3. The disease terminates sometimes in cure, but not frequently; at times it gives place to some other affection. Phthisis is a common termination. It also ends in pneumonia, purulent pleurisies, pulmonary gangrene, and paralysis of the thoracic organs. Apoplexy is one of the most frequent modes of termination.

4. Relapses are frequent. Diabetics, after enjoyment of perfect health for months, are often made sick again by some irregularity in living or imperfection of diet.

5. The frequency of diabetes, compared with other diseases, is rare. The records of four hospitals in Lisbon for 1835, 1836, and part of 1838, show that in an aggregate of 22,735 admissions there was not one case of diabetes. During the first quarter of 1839, of 2,018 cases admitted into the Hôpital S. José, two were diabetics. During the years 1840-41-42, 7,013 cases were admitted into the Marine Hospital of Lisbon, but none of diabetes; nor was there a single case among the 11,441 patients admitted into S. José in 1843. In the following year, in the same hospital, one diabetic patient was found in the 12,078 cases admitted: and in 1853, one in 10,000 admissions. In 1855 the total mortality of Lisbon was 6,119; of this number four deaths from diabetes are reported; and of the 5,700 deaths in 1862, two deaths were from diabetes. The Hôpital S. José, in the last six months of the year 1862, received 7,013 patients, of whom four were diabetics; and in the first six months of 1863, 12,133 cases, of which three were diabetics.¹

ETIOLOGY.—1. Facts are related in favour of this affection being hereditary.

2. Most authors believe the disease to be more frequent among men than among women; but Dr. Jordão believes this to be due rather to habits of life than to any constitutional difference of the sexes.

3. According to a majority of writers diabetes occurs most frequently between the ages of thirty and forty years; but the statistics presented by our author show that it occurs generally between thirty and seventy, but is not rare in the extreme ages.

4. Persons of a lymphatico-nervous temperament are most liable to this disease.

5. It occurs most frequently in persons of strong constitutions.

6. Influence of climate in this disease has not been yet determined. Reliable statistics do not exist. Besides, it would be difficult to discriminate the effects of drinks, diet, &c., from those of climate. The disease is frequent in England and Holland, but no case is mentioned in the Russian hospitals, and the military inspector of hospitals did not see a single example of the disease among more than two millions of Russian soldiers. It is more frequent in hot countries.

In all the towns of France, containing a population of 10,000 and upwards, sixty-three men and twenty-eight women died of diabetes in the year

¹ The annual reports on "Meteorology and Epidemics," made by Drs. Ruschenberger and Wilson Jewell, published in the *Transactions of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia*, show that in fourteen years, from 1850 till 1863 inclusive, the total number of deaths in Philadelphia from all causes was 160,086, and of these only 90 were from diabetes, or an average of 1 to every 1778 $\frac{1}{3}$ deaths. The annual mortality with the number of deaths from diabetes in Philadelphia is as follows:—

Year.	Total mortality.	Death from diabetes.	Year.	Total mortality.	Death from diabetes.
1850 . . .	8,488	6	1857 . . .	10,895	7
1851 . . .	8,871	7	1858 . . .	10,697	3
1852 . . .	10,155	2	1859 . . .	9,742	3
1853 . . .	9,711	5	1860 . . .	11,568	11
1854 . . .	11,815	3	1861 . . .	14,468	12
1855 . . .	10,457	4	1862 . . .	15,097	10
1856 . . .	12,334	7	1863 . . .	15,788	10
				160,086	90

1854. In England, in 1839, the number of deaths from this disease is reported to have been 214. Between the years 1837 and 1853, inclusive, five cases occurred in the hospital at Funchal, Madeira.

7. The winter season seems to favour its development.

8. Profession or occupation does not appear to be very influential in causing the disease.

9. Defective or deficient alimentation, or a diet in which there is excess of fecula or sugar, is usually considered to be among the causes of diabetes. The disease has been attributed to excessive use of onions, asparagus, radishes, alspice, and different condiments.

10. Fermented and distilled liquors, especially cider, as well as tea, used immoderately, are charged as causes of this malady.

11. Depressing moral affections, fright, excessive intellectual labour.

12. Abuse of venereal pleasures.

13. The excessive use of diuretic and emmenagogue medicines are enumerated among the causes of diabetes.

14. Affections of the medulla, obstinate neuralgias, asthma, nervous irritations, hysteria, hypochondria, irritations of the alimentary canal, or kidneys, suppression of accustomed discharges, or of eruptions, are supposed to be disposing or productive causes of the disease.

15. The suggestion that diabetes is contagious or may be epidemic, is not worthy of consideration.

16. Blows upon the nucha or any part of the cranium, followed or not by fracture, are among the most manifest causes of diabetes.

PATHOLOGICAL ANATOMY.—There is no special or constant lesion which characterizes diabetes; but lesions of the liver and medulla are most frequently met with.

1. *Lesions in the liquids.*—The constitution of the blood of diabetes is found to be in some respects abnormal. It is reported to contain in excess sugar, urea, chloride of sodium, fat, creatine, and creatinine, water, and to be deficient in phosphates. The quantities of albumen, fibrin, and globules are sometimes more and sometimes less than normal. It has an alkaline reaction, and some writers say that its colour has a milky aspect, due to the presence of an excess of fatty matters; but Dr. Jordão says, that in this respect he has observed nothing worth notice.

2. The cephalo-rachidian liquid is said to be in excess.

3. The serosities found in the cavities of the peritoneum, pleura, and pericardium contain sugar.

4. The bile is limpid, of a reddish-yellow colour, and of a density of 1.020. It contains sugar.

5. According to some observers the lymph abounds in sugar, and

6. The gastric juice is acid, and the intestinal liquids contain much sugar.

7. **LESIONS OF THE SOLIDS.** *Cerebrum and Cerebellum.*—Congestion of the cerebral mass; apoplectic spots between the thalami optici and tubercula quadrigemina; in the corpus striatum, and in the cineritious substance, points like sanguineous infiltrations, and notably softened, have been observed. Also softening of the tubercula quadrigemina is recorded. Sugar has been found in the substance of the brain more than once. In one case the cerebellum was found compressed by an osseous tumour in the occipital fossa. Lesions at the base of the fourth ventricle have been noted by several observers as well as by Dr. Jordão.

8. The medulla has been reported softened, and also hardened, and in a hyperæmic condition.

9. The cerebral involucri are sometimes found without any observable lesions, but at others there is manifest evidence of their participation in the disease. Adhesions, thickening, injection, and purulent deposits of the membranes are reported.

10. Two different kinds of lesions of the nerves have been observed, hypertrophy and compression. Messrs. Duben, Huss, and Nyman cite four cases in which the pneumogastric was strangulated by calcareous concretions. Duncan mentions hypertrophy of the sympathetic, and Rayer of the renal plexus.

11. Sometimes the lungs are found healthy, and sometimes tubercular.

12. The heart and vessels are occasionally found diseased, but not necessarily in this malady.

13. The stomach and intestines are often very much dilated, the mucous surface injected, softened, or ecchymosed, and their parietes hypertrophied or sometimes atrophied.

14. Lesions of the liver are not always found after death from diabetes. Augmentation of volume either of a part or of the whole organ is frequent. Hypertrophy of the right with atrophy of the left lobe; and atrophy of the whole liver as well as fatty degeneration are mentioned. Congestion is set down as one of the most constant lesions. The aspect and colour are various. The lesions of the organ peculiar to diabetes are increased consistence, homogeneous or uniform appearance and dark colour. The hepatic cells are reported to be intimately united, pale, and very small; all contain a voluminous and brilliant nucleus. The quantity of sugar found in diabetic livers varies; in two cases none was found. These differences are attributed to the manner of the patient's death; if he died suddenly sugar is abundant, but if he perishes slowly or from some febrile affection, it disappears both from the urine and liver.

15. Softening and hypertrophy of the spleen are reported in some few instances.

16. The pancreas is usually found normal; but some instances of atrophy, fatty degeneration, and pancreatic calculi are noted.

17. Hypertrophy, with hardening or softening of the mesenteric glands, containing cheesy or calcareous matter, is mentioned.

18. The cavity of the pelvis, in one case, is reported to have presented recently formed false membranes, sero-purulent effusions into the peritoneum, hypertrophy of the coats of the rectum, &c.

19. In some cases the kidneys have been found normal. Home has noticed in them an acid odour. Their colour has been described as chocolate, ash, pale, yellow, deep red, &c. Almost all observers say that their consistence is softer than is normal. One case of atrophy of both kidneys is mentioned, but generally their volume is found to be augmented. The bloodvessels are found injected, and in some cases very much enlarged. Hydatids, cysts, calculi, cartilaginous plates, purulent points, dilatation of the tubules of the cortical substance, enlargement of the pelvis, have been noted by different observers. Sometimes sugar has been found in these organs.

20. The renal capsules are usually in a normal state.

21. In some instances increased size of the ureters has been reported, but usually they are found to be in a healthy condition.

22. The bladder is normal, but some cases of hypertrophy of its coats, and of dilatation are reported.

23. The urethra in one case is stated to have attained four times its natural diameter.

24. The prostate is usually natural. The same remark applies to the *vesiculæ seminales*, testes, bones, and fat.

Two lesions, which seem to be appropriate to the disease, are those of the liver and nervous system; the others noted belong to the complications, or are purely accidental, or are consequent upon some symptoms of diabetes. In the first class are tubercles, abscesses, gangrene, &c.; in the second, aneurisms, lesions of the bones, &c.; and in the third, lesions of the stomach, intestines, kidneys, and bladder.

One of the most important lesions noted by Andral, Wilks, and other observers, is congestion of the liver, so decided in character that the organ, instead of wearing its normal aspect of being of two substances, one yellow and the other red, it is found to be of a dark red throughout its extent.

There is something peculiar in the character of this intense hyperæmia. In diabetes the liver becomes notable on account of the great quantity of blood with which it is engorged, and the fact that all hepatic congestions are not followed by glycosuria, may be due to the diversity of the elements affected in diabetetic and ordinary congestion.

This lesion not being constant simply shows that the liver is not always affected in diabetes, but there are certain forms of the complaint in which it plays an important part.

Certain general and partial hypertrophies, fatty degenerations, morbid transformations of its microscopic elements, in many cases go to establish the great frequency of lesions of this organ, and to give to them high importance.

The lesions of the nervous system, though not constant, have, however, a value very different from that assigned to those of other organs, from the importance attributed to them, not only in an anatomical and normal physiological state, but also in the pathological condition.

Observations on the origin of the sympathetic, the experiments of Claude Bernard, Becker, Harley, and Schiff on the influence of a wound of the base of the fourth ventricle on the production of sugar in the urine; those on the compression and on the galvanization of the medulla; cases of diabetes following blows upon the head; nervous lesions followed by glycosuria in many instances, and cases of diabetes consequent upon moral impressions, are more than sufficient reasons for giving importance to lesions of the nervous system in diabetes. The part played by the nervous system in the production of this disease is very great, which it is vain to dispute. Perhaps anatomy of the nervous system is not sufficiently advanced to enable us to recognize all its abnormal conditions in any disease, and hence there may be uncertainty in the minds of many observers as to its condition in many cases of diabetes.

Renal changes are esteemed now less important than they were formally. Hypertrophy and other lesions are easily explained by the exaggerated function of the organ. Indeed, this alteration is met with in polyurias, is wanting in diabetics, and may be readily produced in animals by extirpating one kidney. The irritating action of sugar on the tissue of the organ cannot be slight. Bernard saw inflammation and the formation of abscesses in the kidneys follow the injection of sugar in the veins.

Our author remarks, in apology for giving so many details, that minute

circumstances, which at the time of noting them are often useless, may, perchance, become of immense future advantage in studying disease.

COMPARATIVE PATHOLOGY.—Diabetes may be caused in animals temporarily, by wounding the base of the fourth ventricle, or by a sharp blow on the occipital region. These facts have been noted by different experimenters, who conclude that generally glycosuria lasts from one to two days in rabbits, and from six to seven in dogs.

M. Pavy has made some experiments in this connection. In three he cut the descending part of the medulla oblongata, decapitating the animal, and cutting the medulla to its centre. Seven were made on the sympathetic (under the idea that it transmits the influence of the cerebro-spinal system to the liver), dividing the branches which accompany the vertebral artery, the ascending branches of the superior thoracic ganglion; separating the carotic ganglion on one side, and afterwards both; and the superior cervical ganglion; all these operations, conducted with artificial respiration, were followed by the appearance of sugar in the urine. Irritating the brain (cerebrum), separating it from the medulla oblongata by cutting its crura, cutting the spinal medulla in the cervical region with the two pneumogastrics, or the latter separately, and at last separating the sympathetic in the thorax, sugar did not appear. From these experiments he concludes: 1st. That the liver receives from the medulla the force which presides over its chemical acts of nutrition: 2d. That transmission is not made by the pneumogastrics: 3d. That it must be admitted that the medulla acts on the liver through the sympathetic; and 4th. That the sympathetic alone participates slightly in these chemical actions.

Harley reports that the injection of alcohol and ether into the portal vein of animals produces a glycosuria, and Pavy, that the same phenomenon follows the introduction of phosphoric acid into the small intestines.

Horses fed on oats altered by humidity, suffer temporarily from diabetic phenomena.

Instances of spontaneous diabetes in animals are very few. Leblanc reported (1850) to the Academy of Medicine of Paris a case of diabetes in a bitch, between six and seven years old, which had been always fed on meat. Recently¹ M. Beranger-Féraud saw a macaque, fed exclusively on animal substances since its arrival in France, for the purpose of enabling it to resist the cold, die of diabetes at the end of nine months. Its symptoms were rapid emaciation, incessant thirst, increase of the renal secretion with sugar in the urine, amaurosis, and convulsive phenomena.

These observations suggest that exclusive animal diet neither cures nor prevents the disease.

The author hopes to present soon his "study" on the diagnosis and prognosis of diabetes in continuation of this valuable paper.

W. S. W. R.

¹ *Gaz. Méd. de Paris*, 1864, page 324.

ART. XIX.—*Clinical Notes on Uterine Surgery; with Special Reference to the Management of the Sterile Condition.* By J. MARION SIMS, A. B., M. D., etc. etc. 8vo. pp. 401. New York: William Wood & Co. 1866.

THE present collection of "clinical notes" does not cover the entire field of "uterine surgery." The accidents of parturition—fistulæ of the bladder, rectum, and vagina; laceration of the perineum, uterus, etc.—are not even touched upon. In reference to the accidents of parturition, and their surgical treatment, the author promises to prepare, at no distant day, if time and circumstances permit, a fully illustrated monograph. The volume before us presents simply an exposition of the causes of sterility and a description of the surgical appliances adapted to remedy if not all, at least a majority of those causes. This of itself constitutes, confessedly, a most important branch of uterine surgery.

Like all teachings in medicine or in surgery based strictly upon the results of clinical observations, especially when the field for observation has been ample and the observer is one in whose skill and accuracy full confidence can be placed, the notes of Dr. Sims will be found replete with reliable practical instruction. The reputation of Dr. S. for success in the application of surgical means for remedying uterine accidents and abnormalities, stands sufficiently high both in this country and in Europe, while his opportunities for the proper cultivation of the field he has chosen as his speciality, have been sufficiently extensive to stamp all his teachings with no slight degree of authority. Even should not all the plans of treatment recommended by him be permanently adopted as the best, his teachings throughout are of that suggestive character which must lead to a more intimate acquaintance with the true character of the several affections and accidents of which he treats, and to such improvements in the means for their treatment as the nature of the case will admit of.

Dr. Sims enumerates the conditions essential to conception as follows:—

"1. It occurs only during menstrual life. 2. Menstruation should be such as to show a healthy state of the uterine cavity. 3. The os and cervix uteri should be sufficiently open to permit the free exit of the menstrual flow, and also to admit the ingress of the spermatozoa. 4. The cervix should be of proper form, size, and density. 5. The uterus should be in a normal position, *i. e.*, neither anteverted, nor retroverted, to any great degree. 6. The vagina should be capable of receiving and retaining the spermatic fluid. 7. Semen with living spermatozoa, should be deposited in the vagina at the proper time. 8. The secretions of the cervix and vagina should not poison or kill the spermatozoa."

Each of these conditions is considered separately, with a very full and candid examination into the cause or causes by which it is destroyed, and when the abnormality is capable of removal the means are described by which such removal is to be effected.

The practical portion of the work is preceded by an inquiry into the method of uterine examination, or, more strictly speaking, by a very full exposition of the author's own method of ocular exploration, with a description of the instruments invented by him to aid in its accomplishment.

The section on the non-occurrence of conception excepting during menstrual life, contains nothing absolutely new, it is nevertheless replete with

interest. Some portions of it, however, have but a very indirect relation to the question discussed.

Dr. S. remarks that "many women conceive without menstruating." Put in this general way, the position is not exactly correct—we know of no instance in which it has been absolutely proved that conception took place previously to the appearance of the menstrual flow. A similar statement is made by Dr. S. himself. During, however, menstrual life, women who conceive very rapidly, have been known to become several times pregnant notwithstanding there was no evidence of the return of the menses during the intervals between their successive pregnancies. Such cases have, as we have remarked, fallen under our notice, though we cannot say that they have been of very frequent occurrence.

The second section, in which are considered the disturbed conditions of menstruation resulting from various morbid states of the uterus, and the surgical means for their removal, is very complete. Every point connected with the subject is fully illustrated by appropriate cases derived chiefly from clinical notes collected by the author in the course of his own practice. The teachings of Dr. S. in respect to abnormal menstruation strongly press upon the practitioner the importance of tracing carefully to its actual cause every disturbance of the menstrual function, this being, in many cases, the only means of determining the proper measures to be pursued for its prompt and permanent rectification.

The disturbed conditions of menstruation treated of by Dr. S., are its absence, its deficiency and excess, and its painful character. The account given of menorrhagia—from granular erosion—from fibrous engorgement of the cervix uteri, from fungoid granulations, polypi, fibroid tumours and inversion of the uterus, is premised by the following remarks:—

"According to modern views, the menstrual fluid is not a secretion, but an exudation of blood from the lining membrane of the cavity of the uterus, which acquires its peculiar qualities by admixture with the secretions of the cervix and vagina as it passes out."

A recognition of this physiological fact is essential in order that a proper treatment of the several disturbances of menstruation may be adopted.

It is pretty certain, we think, that the non-establishment of the menstrual flux in young women, and also its pale and scanty character in early life, is due, in the majority of cases, to a torpid state of the vaso-motor nerves of the ovaries and uterus. Under such circumstances, it is now pretty well understood, that the proper administration of electricity is especially valuable as an emmenagogue. This has also proved successful when the catamenia do not appear after labour, or have been suspended by a cold shock, or mental anxiety.

The views in respect to the pathology of dysmenorrhœa or painful menstruation, and the means for its relief laid down by Dr. S., have received the sanction of some of our most distinguished authorities on the diseases of females, and yet we do not see how it is possible to explain satisfactorily the entire phenomena of dysmenorrhœa as presented in the more severe and persistent cases, by referring the disease to a physical condition of the os or cervix uteri or both, calculated to obstruct mechanically the egress of the menstrual blood from the cavity of the womb. When the narrowing of the os or cervix is attended with an inflamed condition, either acute or chronic, of the parts, we can readily understand that the menstrual flow may be attended with pain, but not very readily, even then, why at the menstrual period there should be, as is so frequently the case,

the formation in the uterus and the discharge from it of a true decidua membrane. We are not prepared at present to enter upon a proper consideration of the subject. We feel persuaded that there is a sufficient series of well authenticated facts upon record to render very doubtful, to say the least, the accuracy of the proposition laid down by Dr. S. as an axiom, namely :—

“That there can be no dysmenorrhœa, properly speaking, if the canal of the neck of the womb be straight, and large enough to permit the free passage of the menstrual blood. In other words, that there must be some mechanical obstacle to the egress of the flow at some point between the os internum and the os externum, or throughout the whole cervical canal.”

The cause preventing the ingress into the womb of spermatozoa are occlusion, wholly or in part, of the os tincæ, with induration of the cervix, often produced by the prolonged and indiscreet use of caustic applications. Several cases are adduced in illustration of this cause of sterility and of the results of a surgical operation instituted for its removal. An operation the object of which is, by appropriate incisions into the neck of the uterus, to enlarge the calibre of its canal, and to prevent the subsequent diminution or closure of the enlargement thus effected.

A case of sterility is related in which hypertrophy of the cervical mucous membrane, the consequence of chronic inflammation of the cervix, gave rise to a valvular condition of the os tincæ, a projection upwards of the lower lip of the os, giving rise to a kind of semi-lunar form of the latter, presenting no obstacle whatever to the exit of the menses from the cavity of the uterus, but effectually impeding the ingress of anything into that cavity. This valvular condition being removed by the knife, the os was brought back to a perfectly natural condition. Notwithstanding the feeble state of this lady and the length of time that had elapsed since the birth of her last child, conception took place one month after the operation. She went the full time, and was safely delivered of a fine boy. Dr. S. examined the uterus some four or five months after delivery, and found its condition to be about the same as it was at the time of conception. The case is one of interest as illustrating one of the mechanical obstacles to conception. It is not an exceptional case, Dr. S. having met with others similar to it.

Various diseased conditions of the cervix uteri as causes of sterility are noticed in section fourth—as flexion, with a conical shape of the cervix, induration, hypertrophy, elongation, and granulation, with the remedies proper for the removal of each of these abnormal states.

The subject of amputation in cases of excessive elongation of the cervix uteri is very fully discussed. Dr. S. is decidedly in favour of a resort to the operation whenever it is clearly indicated. It does not, he assures us, interfere with conception, and he estimates the danger attendant upon it as no greater than that upon incision of the os and cervix. The statistics of the operation, as adduced by Dr. S., would certainly seem to bear him out in his favourable conclusions in regard to its safety and harmlessness when carefully performed, startling as these conclusions may appear to some who have but partially studied the subject and have little if any clinical experience in respect to it.

Anteversio, retroversio, flexio, and procidentia of the uterus as causes of sterility, are discussed in Section V. of Dr. S.'s notes.

The account given of the character, causes, results, and treatment of

the several forms of uterine displacements is particularly clear and instructive.

It is strange that questions apparently of so easy solution when referred to the test of clinical observation, as those appertaining to the frequency of uterine displacement, the symptoms to which it gives rise, and the proper means for its management, in the several forms under which it occurs, should have given rise to so much controversy among physicians, and such very opposite views among those of equal eminence, and with equal opportunities, seemingly, for arriving at correct conclusions. By some the infrequency of ante- and retroversion and flexion of the womb is insisted upon, or who, when these displacements do occur, look upon them as matters of little importance; while, on the other hand, there are those who maintain that these displacements are of very frequent occurrence, and attribute to them almost every disease under which the female may labour, certainly all the nervous symptoms of which she may complain. It is only after much experience that any one can strike the true line between these two opposite views.

As the terms version and flexion are often used by writers on the diseases of women with so much looseness as to puzzle the young practitioner in determining positively, excepting in extreme cases, the presence or absence of these conditions of the womb, with their character and extent when present, we copy here the exact description of these accidents given in the notes before us.

"The uterus," remarks Dr. S. "occupies, normally, very nearly a central position in the pelvis, being, perhaps, a little nearer to the sacrum than to the pubes. Its long axis should stand at about right angles to that of the vagina; the fundus pointing in the direction of the umbilicus, and the os tincæ towards the end of the coccyx. The fundus may be tilted a little one way or the other without the position being necessarily abnormal. The condition and contents of the bladder and rectum may temporarily influence it to some extent. If it turns forwards or backwards for 25° or 30° , it does not amount to malposition; but if to 40° in either direction, without soon rectifying itself, it is abnormal, and usually goes from bad to worse, till the malposition becomes persistent. If the uterus fall backward in a line drawn from the os to the promontory of the sacrum, it will describe an angle of 45° , and will present its broadest surface to the pressure of the superincumbent viscera, which will necessarily force it eventually lower and lower; and if turned forward to the same extent, the same power exerted on its broad posterior surface necessarily increases this abnormal tendency. But an anteversion never goes relatively to so great an extent as a retroversion, simply because it meets with more resistance. Anteversion often stops at 45° , but may go to 90° , as when we have a complete version, with the whole organ lying flatly down on the anterior wall of the vagina, and parallel with it, while a retroversion seldom or never stops under 90° , and often goes to 135° , simply because there is less opposition to its downward progress. It then follows that if the fundus of the uterus is found constantly lying just behind, or even near, the symphysis pubis, it is an anteversion, but if it is found lying persistently back under the promontory of the sacrum, it is a retroversion. But when only the body of the uterus is turned forwards or backwards, the os seeming to be in rather a normal relation with the vagina, there is necessarily a bending of the cervix somewhere between the os externum and the os internum, and we call this flexion. Most, if not all, versions become in time flexions, so that, as a general rule, they are but different stages or degrees of the same thing."

Speaking of the several causes of version of the uterus, Dr. S. says that, in many instances of anterior curvature of the cervix uteri, this has seemed to result from an amorphous growth on its posterior surface. The growth alluded to is not described in the books. It has a fibro-

cartilaginous feel. Dr. S. has seen a dozen cases in which it was present. It has a somewhat triangular shape, always pointed below. It very generally projects a little below the insertion of the vagina. Nothing similar to it has been seen by Dr. S. growing on any other portion of the uterus. He has met with it in two cases where there was no curvature of the cervix: both patients were sterile; the cervix was incised in both; in one conception took place at the end of four months, in the other at the end of eight months. Previously to being seen by Dr. S. both patients had had an attack of metro-peritonitis. It may, therefore, be inferred that the growth alluded to may have been possibly the product of inflammation. It does not interfere of itself with conception or gestation. In the other instances seen by Dr. S. he was unable to determine any probable predisposing cause. The growth has a sessile attachment to the neck of the womb, perhaps half an inch wide above, narrowing as it descends. It can be diagnosed with the greatest facility by the bimanual method of palpation.

The author's somewhat minute directions for the treatment of the several displacements, with the histories of the cases given in illustration of its results should be carefully studied by all who are desirous of becoming familiar with the surgical appliances best adapted for rectifying the malpositions of the womb, and for its retention as nearly as possible in its normal position.

In the following remarks in respect to pessaries there is much truth: "Some practitioners condemn pessaries and ostracize them altogether, while others advocate them perhaps too universally. As in the case of most disputed points, the advocates and opponents of the instrument will both be found to have a certain amount of truth in support of their respective views. Pessaries, according to Dr. S., are necessary evils. We should do without them whenever it is possible; but where their use is demanded it is important that the size and form of the instrument, be such as will best answer the indications of each case.

The mistakes made in respect to pessaries arise, either from

1st. In resorting to them when there is some form of metritic inflammation present.

2d. In selecting an inappropriate instrument.

3d. In making it too large. Sometimes too small; or,

4th. In allowing it to remain too long without removal.

The causes by which the vagina is incapacitated from receiving and retaining the spermatic fluid are considered in Section VI.

The ordinary obstacles to the introduction of the semen are imperforate hymen, vaginismus, and atresia of the vagina, or its entire absence. The causes which prevent the retention of the seminal fluid in the vagina after its introduction there are an abnormal shortness of the canal—excepting in cases where there is, from any cause, an open os uteri fixed permanently in a direct line with the ejaculative force—and the presence of certain forms of retroversion of the womb.

The most interesting portion of this section is that which relates to what the author has denominated vaginismus. A condition in which there exists an excessive hyperæsthesia of the hymen and vulvular outlet, associated with an involuntary spasmodic contraction of the sphincter vaginae. This spasmodic contraction is brought on by the gentlest touch, even that of a camel's-hair pencil or fine feather, attended with an amount of agony sufficient to cause the patient to shriek out, the pain induced being compared

by her to what might be supposed to result from thrusting a sharp knife into the sensitive part. The pain is worse in some cases than in others. The pain and spasm are generally so great as to render sexual intercourse impossible.

The disease is much more frequent than is generally supposed; it is proper, therefore, that every practitioner should make himself familiar with what is known in reference to its pathology and treatment. There can be no difficulty in regard to its diagnosis—indeed, we know of no affection of the parts implicated with which it could possibly be confounded by any intelligent practitioner.

The sensitiveness exists at all parts of the vaginal outlet. It is usually very great at and near the meatus urinarius on each side, where the hymen takes its origin, but still greater near the orifice of the vulvo-vaginal gland; often, however, the most sensitive part is at the fourchette, where the hymen projects upwards. The whole vulvular or outer face of the hymen is sensitive, but it is more so along its reduplication or base. The slightest touch here gives rise to intense pain and an involuntary spasm of the sphincter muscle, both of the vagina and anus. In some cases the sphincter ani feels like a ball of ivory. By one patient it was supposed to be a tumour that would require excision.

Vaginismus, in its most aggravated forms, is unattended with inflammation; Dr. S. has, however, met with several cases in which there was redness or erythema at the fourchette. Usually the hymen is thick and voluminous. Often when the finger is forced through it, its free border feels as resistant as if bounded by a fine cord or wire.

The treatment recommended by Dr. S. consists in the removal of the hymen, the incision of the vaginal orifice, and its subsequent dilatation. The last, we are informed, is ineffectual without the first two, but is essential to easy and perfect success with them. For a detailed account of the several steps in the operation for the cure of vaginismus as proposed by Dr. S., we refer such of our readers as desire to become familiar with its details to the volume before us.

The entire subject of this very painful complaint is treated of by our author with uncommon clearness. We could have wished, however, that some of the details he has entered into had been omitted. Certainly, all that was necessary, in order to establish the facts in connection with which these details are introduced, was a general statement that coition is rendered possible and painless in cases of vaginismus, and may be followed by conception, if practised whilst the female is under the influence of etherization. We really do think that the practitioner referred to by Dr. S., who condescended to make it his business "to repair regularly to the residence of a certain couple, two or three times a week, to etherize the poor wife," who suffered from vaginismus, so as to permit of sexual intercourse, had not even an ordinary amount of self-respect, or any very exalted views of his proper dignity as a member of the medical profession.

The absence of living spermatozoa in the male semen as a cause of sterility is the subject treated of in the seventh section. The cause of the absence of living spermatozoa from the semen of the non-superannuated male is not very clear in any case. The non-ejection of spermatozoa by the male into the vagina of the female in cases where there is no impediment to their entrance, may result from either congenital malposition of the testes, chronic inflammation of these organs, or stricture. In the first

two cases the testes fail to produce spermatozoa; in the third the semen regurgitates into the bladder.

"When the testes are retained in the abdomen, they seem to remain in a rudimentary state, and never attain the power of secreting semen with spermatozoa."

The absence of spermatozoa may also be due to an obstruction of the excretory ducts of the testes; usually the result of acute inflammation of the latter.

Most cases of impotence from the absence of living spermatozoa in the male semen are irremediable. In cases dependent upon regurgitation of the semen into the bladder, in consequence of the presence of urethral stricture, the proper remedy is the removal of the stricture by the usual means.

The eighth and last section of Dr. S.'s work is devoted to a consideration of the abnormal conditions of the secretions of the cervix uteri and vagina which are liable to produce a destruction of the spermatozoa. This change from the healthy condition of the secretions is almost always, perhaps invariably, brought about by inflammatory action. Of the forms of leucorrhœa dependent upon the inflammation of the lining membrane of the vagina and of the cervix uteri, Dr. S. gives a very concise but satisfactory account, and presents a judicious summary of their appropriate treatment.

An inflamed condition of the mucous membrane of the cavity of the uterus is liable to give rise to a discharge from the latter of a morbid secretion which is also destructive to the vitality of the spermatozoa.

"Endo-metritis has recently been the subject of considerable investigation. Scanzoni, Routh, and others, have written much upon it. Dr. Hall Davis has exhibited to the Pathological Society the uterus of a woman who died of this affection, and Dr. Oldham has shown me," says Dr. S., "a number of valuable specimens in the museum of Guy's Hospital, illustrative of the varieties of this disease; which may exist in various degrees of intensity, from a merely congested and eroded state of the uterine mucous membrane to the extent of great disorganization. General constitutional remedies are, of course, indicated, but are never of any great value without local treatment. Nothing in uterine disease is more difficult to remedy than endo-metritis. The first great principle to guide us is that of insuring a very free exit from the cavity of the uterus for the secretions therein generated. The second is that of appropriate local applications to this cavity for the purpose of modifying or healing, as it were, its diseased surface."

In cases where the canal of the cervix uteri is contracted, Dr. S. has freely divided it with great relief. During the menstrual age it is all important to prevent the retention of the secretions of the uterus, and hence the importance of a free division of the cervix.

"With a patulous cervix, we may use medicated injections, or apply nitrate of silver in ointment, as recommended and successfully done by Prof. Fordyce Barker, of New York."

"There is a mild form of endo-metritis that seemingly gives rise to no secretions whatever, which nevertheless," according to Dr. S., "is attended with great suffering, and is often passed unnoticed, or rather undetected, for a long time. Dr. Routh has particularly noticed this form, and calls it fundal endo-metritis."

To diagnose this form of endo-metritis, place the patient in a semi-prone position on the left side; then introduce the lever speculum; and hook slightly a tenaculum in the anterior lip of the os tincae, draw this gently forwards, pulling open the os so as to be able to look directly into it; then pass the sound, previously warmed, gently along the cervix, using not the

slightest force, but almost letting it go, as it were, by its own gravity, to the fundus. No pain is experienced until the sensitive point is reached by the sound, when the most intense agony is produced, which sometimes does not cease for hours afterwards.

Dr. S. thinks it highly probable that many unexplained neuralgic pains may yet be found to be symptomatic of some slight endo-metritic affection. He believes that in many cases in which the spermatozoa are found to die quickly in the canal of the cervix the real source of the mischief will probably be found to exist in the cavity of the uterus.

Dr. S. has satisfied himself that the secretion of the cervix uteri is often destructive to the spermatozoa, even when, apparently, almost normal.

"This," he remarks, "must depend upon some other quality than mere alkalinity, for I have often found all the spermatozoa in the cervical mucus dead, while it manifested no unusual degree of alkalinity, when tested by litmus paper. But when placed under the microscope it showed an uncommon number of epithelial scales. This demonstrated an abnormal action in the glandular apparatus, that gave rise to this secretion, which seemed to kill the spermatozoa more by its density than by chemical action; for I have noticed that they lived longer in that portion of the mucus that had the fewest number of epithelial scales; and, *vice versa*, died quicker in that portion that had the most; and this, too, when litmus paper showed no difference in the chemical character of the two."

In the foregoing notice of the work of Dr. S., we have not attempted a complete analysis of its contents; many of the important questions embraced in the rich collection of clinical notes, of which it consists, we have passed unnoticed. The entire work is one from the study of which the physician in general practice, much more he who has adopted the diseases of females as his speciality, will derive valuable instruction. Many of the author's improvements in the surgical treatment of uterine affections, with the detail of the cases by which they are illustrated and enforced, appeared originally in former numbers of this journal; to a certain extent, they are familiar, therefore, to perhaps the majority of our readers. The time, however, devoted to their reperusal will not be thrown away. The language of Dr. S. is sufficiently clear, and his description, whether of diseased conditions or operations, precise and intelligible.

In some of the experiments performed by Dr. S. in illustration of certain points connected with the subjects discussed by him—we refer more especially to those described in Sections VI. and VII.—he has, at least in our estimation, overstepped the bounds of propriety, which is not justified simply by the fact that his work is a purely scientific one, and intended solely for the use of scientific readers. The value of the physiological truths established by certain of the experiments referred to, we freely confess, but even this consideration we scarcely think can be received as a full sanction of them.

D. F. C.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTICES.

ART. XX.—*Transactions of American State Medical Societies:—*

1. *Fifteenth Anniversary Meeting of the Illinois State Medical Society, held at Bloomington, May 2d and 3d, 1865.* 8vo. pp. 152.
2. *Transactions of the Vermont Medical Society for the year 1865.* 8vo. pp. 62.
3. *Transactions of the Indiana State Medical Society at its Sixteenth Annual Session held at Indianapolis, May 15th, 16th, and 17th, 1866.* 8vo. pp. 110.

1. THE volume before us, issued by the *Illinois State Medical Society*, opens with a public Address to the members of the Society and the citizens of Bloomington, on the "Nature of Medical Science and its Relations to the Community," by Dr. N. S. Davis, of Chicago. The address is a sound philosophical exposition of the character and quality of legitimate medicine, and its claims upon the confidence and support of every community. The writer points out very clearly a fact too often lost sight of in discussions involving the true value of medical science; namely, that the benefit it confers is not restricted merely to assuaging the pain, shortening the duration and reducing the mortality of disease, subsequent to its occurrence. The insight which the physician has acquired into the causes of diseases, the circumstances under which they are developed, the laws governing their diffusion, and the means for their prevention, neutralization or destruction, have been made more or less subservient to the welfare of man as the basis of a true hygiene or sanitary science. There is scarcely a community that realizes the actual extent to which it is constantly enjoying the substantial benefits derived from this department of medical knowledge.

By Dr. N. Wright, of Chatham, some remarks are presented on "Diuretics in the Treatment of Malarious or Periodical Fevers." It is to those chronic cases of malarial poisoning met with in patients living in a malarial region, who have suffered many attacks of periodical fever, with disturbance or suspension of the various secretions, and, in consequence, necessarily, with an abnormal condition of the entire mass of blood that the remarks of Dr. D. chiefly refer. Such cases are marked by a sallow, waxen appearance of countenance, yellowness of the conjunctivæ, torpor of the intellect, general anæmia, with infiltration, to a greater or less extent, of the cellular tissues. The great and leading indication in such cases is to restore the various secretions to their normal condition, and to eliminate from the blood the effete matter with which it has become loaded. Among the means adapted to that end, one of the most efficient, according to Dr. W., is to be found amongst the diuretics. He recommends acetate of potash, freely diluted with water, about one drachm to the pint, two or three times a day. He has tried it, repeatedly, he tells us, during some two years, and usually with decided success. Dr. W. does not dispense with quinia to check the paroxysms, nor with some mercurial preparation to remove the partial congestion, but uses these latter in conjunction always with the acetate of potash.

Dr. E. L. Holmes, of Chicago, presents a report from the "Special Committee on Diseases of the Eye." The report presents a brief notice of iritis, its diagnosis, and treatment, from its commencement, by the local application of atropia in the form of solution or substance. A reference is also made to two cases of destructive choroiditis connected with attacks of cerebro-spinal meningitis; and to two cases complicating severe erysipelas of the head and face; and a brief notice given of two cases in which paralysis of the muscles of the eye followed an attack of diphtheria.

There are some obscure points in respect to the connection which exists

between Bright's disease of the kidneys and certain affections of the retina which require elucidation by more close and extended observation.

"What form of albuminuria is most liable to complication with fatty degeneration of the retina? How large a proportion of patients affected with albuminuria suffer from amaurotic symptoms? It is worthy of notice," says Dr. H., "that in these cases of retinitis, the affection of the kidney can be diagnosed with almost absolute certainty, by the ophthalmoscopic appearance of the retina alone. During the past year I have been consulted in two cases of amaurotic disease, in both of which the ophthalmoscopic appearance of the retina led to the suspicion that the patients were suffering from albuminuria. The examination of the urine confirmed the opinion."

The history of an "Epidemic Erysipelatous Fever" which prevailed at Waverly, Ill., during the winter of 1864, is given by Dr. R. E. McVey. The locality is a high rolling prairie, with a fine loamy soil, slightly mixed with sand; it is sufficiently drained, and sheltered by timber from the northwestern winds. The water used for domestic purposes is obtained from wells, at the bottom of which are found a continuous bed of slate and sandstone, mixed with occasional stræ of stone coal. The country is in a high state of cultivation, and there exists, apparently, no more cause for epidemics than in any portion of the country. During, however, the winter of 1864, there was an epidemic of cerebro-spinal meningitis, which proved very intractable; through the summer an epidemic of scarlatina prevailed, and when cold weather set in erysipelatous fever made its appearance, which exceeded in fatality even cholera.

The weather was dry and cold, the mercury ranging from 32° above to 10° below 0; scarcely any rain had fallen since November, 1864, until March, 1865, making, upon the whole, a winter of a uniform temperature, dry and pleasant.

The symptoms of the erysipelatous fever were nearly the same as those of bilious fever. The disease resembles the latter in duration and in its general tendencies. In this disease the secretions are all locked up and the action of the heart greatly accelerated. The functions of the skin, kidneys, liver, and bowels are diminished, while the action of the lungs is increased. The bile being retained, unless proper remedies are used, jaundice sets in. If the action of the kidneys is suspended for any length of time, coma results. The general tendencies of the disease are to induration, inflammation, and suppuration; the disease running a course of from seven to twenty-eight days.

Unlike what is true of bilious fever, inflammation was liable to set in early in the tonsils, pleura, peritoneum, the external muscles of the neck or face; no portion of the body was, indeed, exempt. In some of the cases the inflammation was confined to the skin, but it would frequently extend to the cellular tissue, and occasionally to the muscles also, giving rise to large abscesses. The symptoms were more favourable when it located itself upon the surface.

The question may be asked, how can we determine that a case was one of erysipelatous fever, unless the disease be located? The question, says Dr. M. is easily answered; it is by the quick, frequent pulse, which is often 130 in the minute, and by the acute delirium that sets in at night. In the morning the pulse seldom rose beyond 100°, and the mind would be clear and quiet, but so soon as night came round again the pulse quickened and the delirium returned while the patient sank to a degree seldom observed in any other disease. In some cases death occurred from nervous prostration within forty hours from the beginning of the attack. Ordinarily the disease came on with a sense of chilliness, lassitude, pain of the head, back, and limbs. There was loss of appetite, indisposition to exertion. After from twenty-four to thirty-six hours a severe chill would ensue, with intense thirst, nausea and vomiting, restlessness, and a feeling of great muscular prostration. The tongue was usually dry and coated; the skin hot, pulse strong and frequent; urine high coloured. As the disease progressed, the system became more and more exhausted, until the erysipelas located itself externally, or by its breaking down the crasis of the blood the attack resulted in death.

Females seemed peculiarly predisposed to the disease; but no sex, age, or condition in life was exempt.

When erysipelas attacked the peritoneum, mucous membrane of the stomach,

pleura or meninges of the brain, it terminated, most commonly, fatally. The inflammation had a strong tendency to suppuration. In a large number of cases abscesses occurred about the angle of the jaw, and in many within the substance of the tonsils.

The disease did not seem to be contagious; usually, however, it went through entire families. In several instances it was supposed to have been communicated by inoculation.

The most successful treatment consisted in the administration of alteratives, tonics, stimulants, and anodynes. In general, local applications were useful only as placebos. At the commencement of the attack calomel and jalap, with Dover's powder, were given to clean the intestinal canal, after which tonics were administered—quinia and the tincture of the chloride of iron. About the second or third day of the disease, tartar emetic was found to be an invaluable remedy given in about half grain doses, just enough to produce nausea. It relaxed the system, established the secretions, mitigated the force of the circulation, and aroused the liver to action, better than is done by mercury, while there was no danger of the occurrence of ptyalism, which is especially to be dreaded whenever there is a tendency of the disease to the throat. During the night morphia enough to calm the restlessness and procure sleep was given. Iodide of iron was given as an alterative, but it did not seem to act as beneficially as the tincture of the chloride of iron combined with quinia. The latter Dr. M. considers indispensable as a tonic and antiperiodic. Throughout the day it may be given with good effect, but must be discontinued upon the approach of night. The local application of the tincture of iodine is highly recommended by modern practitioners in the erratic form of erysipelas; after a faithful trial, however, it was found to do little positive good in arresting the spread of the disease from one portion to another of the surface of the body. In the majority of cases, where the face was attacked the disease disappeared, certainly, as soon without the local use of the iodine as with it.

Dr. A. Niles, of Quincy, relates a case of "Puerperal Peritonitis," treated mainly by opiates, with *veratrum viride* to control the rapid action of the heart. The patient was sick some three weeks, but finally recovered.

During an extensive endemic of puerperal fever which prevailed in Western New York some twenty years ago, finding the antiphlogistic treatment invariably unsuccessful, Dr. N. was induced to try the effects of opium given in conjunction with carbonate of soda; the beneficial effects resulting from this treatment then and subsequently taught him to regard the opiate practice as the one from which the most success is to be anticipated. He commenced with small doses at short intervals, and gradually increased the quantity of the opium until the pain and tenderness were removed, carefully watching, all the while, the effects of the remedy upon the respiration. Large doses, Dr. N. believes to be safe, provided they do not depress the respiration too much.

In a practice of thirty years, Dr. N. has not seen a single case of puerperal peritonitis recover when treated by bleeding, purging, and the other antiphlogistic remedies. Large doses of opium appear to be better borne when combined with quinia. *Veratrum viride*, when it does not nauseate does good by moderating the circulation. Dr. N., however, prefers digitalis.

The concluding paper, is the report on "Orthopædic Surgery"—using the term in its widest sense, including the prevention and correction of deformities in persons of all ages. The report is by Dr. David Prince, of Jacksonville. It proposes to discuss the nature, causation, and treatment of all deformities, save talipes, which was fully considered in a former report, to the extent of some degree of completeness. The important subjects embraced in the report of Dr. P. are certainly very concisely treated by him, but he has succeeded in presenting a very interesting and highly instructive sketch of the actual condition of orthopædic surgery. The better acquaintance which the practitioners of the present day have acquired of the pathology of the more prominent deformities to which the human body is liable, has enabled them to apply with greater skill the means necessary for their removal—whether internal, or externally, in the form of appropriate apparatus. The efficacy of time, skill, and perseverance in the correction of malformations, is far from being fully estimated by the

community at large; we might say the same of even a large number of the medical profession who have failed to make themselves acquainted with the recent advances that have been made in every department of orthopædic surgery. The report of Dr. P. is a somewhat extended one, occupying eighty-three pages of the volume before us, and yet, so extensive are the subjects discussed in it, that they are presented by him rather in outline than in full detail.

2. The usual opening address of the *Vermont Medical Society*, by the president, was pronounced this year by Dr. O. F. FASSETT. The subject of the address is "The Demands of the People of the last half of the nineteenth century upon the Medical Profession, and the Demands, rightful and legitimate, of the Medical Profession upon the People and the Government especially of this country." Upon this theme Dr. Fassett descants very ably. His views, it is true, can lay but little if any claims to originality, while his manner of enforcing them is somewhat too rhetorical; nevertheless the manly stand he takes in favour of legitimate medicine as a science and an art, and the energy with which he urges the necessity, in order to satisfy the just claims of the community, of an honourable, properly educated, and well trained body of men for its successful practice, save the address from condemnation for want of originality, and for any faults of style of which it may be justly accusable.

The address is followed by a paper from Dr. H. F. STEVENS, on the Statistics of Diphtheria in Vermont. Dr. S. applies the term diphtheria to all local affections of the throat attended by an exudation of a membraniform character. The express meaning which Dr. S. would convey by the words "diseases locally attaching the throat" is not very clear. If he simply means all diseases of the throat, accompanied by membraniform exudation, he would then include as diphtheria all cases of membranous croup and many of scarlatina. He cannot mean, certainly, to inculcate the erroneous doctrine of diphtheria being simply a local disease of the fauces.

In the first Registration Report, namely, that of 1857, seventeen cases of death are ascribed to "disease of throat." Of these cases 8 were males and 9 females; eleven being under 20 years of age. "These," Dr. S. remarks, "were probably cases of diphtheria, as some cases of death are ascribed to quinsy in the report. In this early history of diphtheria in our State, it is more than probable that deaths were returned as occurring from scarlatina, that were really caused by diphtheria." Dr. Allen, in remarking upon the report, says that scarlet fever prevailed very extensively throughout Vermont.

In the report for 1858, diphtheria is for the first time referred to as a cause of disease. Fourteen cases are given—8 males and 6 females. Of these eleven were under 20 years of age. No case of death from throat disease is given. Scarlatina is shown to have been more fatal than it was in 1857. Of 275 deaths reported from scarlatina, eleven per cent. occurred in adults. It is probable that in the returns of the causes of death for 1858, scarlatina and diphtheria were largely confounded.

For the year 1859, sixty-one deaths from diphtheria were reported—26 males and 35 females. Forty-seven of the deaths were in persons under 20 years of age. The reported deaths from scarlatina were very numerous, also, some cases returned as putrid sore throat and malignant sore throat were arranged in the list as diphtheria.

In the year 1860, two hundred and twelve deaths from diphtheria are reported—101 males and 111 females; 195 were persons under 20 years of age. The deaths from scarlatina reported this year were less than one-half of the number reported in either of the previous two years.

In the report for 1861, four hundred and forty-one deaths from diphtheria are recorded. Of this number 220 occurred in males and 221 in females. The compiler of the report for 1861 remarks that diphtheria "does not press with equal force and uniformity on every part of the State—some counties being very slightly visited, towns even being entirely exempt, while in other parts the fatality has been excessive. The largest proportion by far of the deaths were in the young—mainly of children under 10 years of age, though young adults

are frequently its victims. The older classes were by no means entirely exempt." In 1861, one hundred and nine deaths from scarlatina are recorded.

In the report for 1862, the deaths from diphtheria amounted to nearly 18 per cent., of the entire mortality for the year. Eight hundred and eighteen deaths are recorded—374 of males and 444 of females.

"It would be interesting," remarks Dr. S., "to trace out still closer points of similarity as well as of difference of diphtheria with scarlatina and croup, between it and both of which diseases there is claimed to be an alliance, if not in many cases, an identity. It would be satisfactory to determine with certainty whether the disease is or is not dependent upon humidity of the atmosphere, low and wet localities, or miasmatic influences. To demonstrate, if possible, whether in its ravages in our own State it followed any general laws, and if so, the nature of those laws. But the data within our reach are too limited to enable us to ascertain the exact influences which govern these epidemics."

Dr. S. considers that the apparently conclusive facts adduced in support of the contagiousness of diphtheria are quite as strongly met, if not rebutted by the negative evidence advanced by those who deny the contagiousness of the disease.

As to the sequelæ of diphtheria, Dr. S. refers to the persistence of albuminuria, its frequent accompaniment—paralysis, often local, as of the palate and pharynx; sometimes general, occasionally persistent.

Dr. S. does not enter into any examination as to the pathology of diphtheria or of its treatment.

The most interesting fact in connection with the history of diphtheria during its prevalence in Vermont, as shown in the paper before us, is its sudden appearing; its rapidly increased prevalence, augmented malignancy, and continued recurrence year after year. This is not like what takes place in epidemic diseases generally, which very rapidly reach their acme as to severity and spread, and then as rapidly decline in both respects. A few sporadic cases may occur for many years—these, however, are usually widely dispersed and mild in character.

The next paper, by Dr. L. C. BUTLER, treats of "The physiological properties and therapeutic action of *Veratrum Viride*." Without wishing to be understood as fully subscribing to all the physiological views and therapeutic expositions set forth by Dr. B. in the article before us, we admit that he has brought forward from his own clinical experience and that of many reliable practitioners, a goodly array of evidence in favour of the value of the *veratrum viride* as a therapeutic agent in a very extensive list of febrile, inflammatory and nervous diseases. Its action is primarily that of a cardiac and nervous sedative, while, secondarily, it acts as a diaphoretic, diuretic, alterative, expectorant, emetic; and, rarely, as a cathartic.

The diseases in which its employment has been found beneficial are all of a decided inflammatory type. In many of these diseases its use may, some insist, supersede a resort to the lancet. Its effects, as an arterial sedative, are very decided, and are not followed by the reaction which so very generally succeeds the use of the lancet, and they may be kept up for days without any unpleasant consequences. In the pneumonia of children it is reported to be a remedy of peculiar efficacy.

In fevers, whether the type be inflammatory or typhoid, the *veratrum viride*, when well timed, has been found, we are assured by many reliable practitioners, to be a most valuable adjuvant to the other remedies demanded by the varying circumstances of individual cases.

In scarlatina the *veratrum* is regarded by some authorities as almost a specific. Under its use, we are assured, the skin becomes moist, the nervous restlessness subdued, the pulse reduced in its momentum, and the affection of the throat and fauces decidedly moderated, and this without any danger of permanent prostration, while, at the same time, the danger of the occurrence of the usual distressing sequelæ of the disease is lessened.

In puerperal fever cases are reported, in which, under the use of the *veratrum*, the pulse became reduced from 140 to 80, and kept at that rate or even under until the recovery of the patient.

We have statements in evidence of the efficacy of the veratrum in puerperal convulsions, puerperal mania, the convulsions of infants, hysteria, neuralgia, chorea, hæmoptosis, etc. etc.

If the facts now collected concerning veratrum viride as a therapeutic agent be carefully collated, Dr. B. believes that the following general conclusions may be deduced from them, viz:—

"1. The tincture made by macerating for one week eight ounces of the fresh dried root of the veratrum in one pint of alcohol, and the fluid extract of Thayer are the best and most reliable preparations for its administration.

"2. The dose of the tincture is five to ten drops, of the extract two to four drops, varied according to the urgency of the symptoms, and the age and strength of the patient, and repeated at intervals of from one to four hours.

"3. It is not necessary to push the remedy so far as to produce emesis or catharsis. Its full effects are usually reached without either of these results.

"4. Veratrum is essentially an arterial and nervous sedative, whether employed by itself or in combination with other agents.

"5. It is as safe a remedy as any we possess, only requiring the ordinary degree of caution in its employment, and, like the majority of our remedial agents, liable to fail in special cases of peculiar idiosyncrasy or of wrong diagnosis.

"6. It is equally applicable in the treatment of low forms of fever, and those of an inflammatory type. In the former it is to be preferred to the lancet, and relieves without depriving the patient of the vital fluid, while in the latter the better its remedial properties are understood the less frequently will the lancet be employed."

"A case of dropsy" is related by Dr. LEMUEL RICHMOND, the only interesting feature of which is the frequency with which paracentesis was performed, at short intervals, and the large quantity of fluid drawn off by the operation. From the 23d of April, 1853, to October 6, 1854, the amount of fluid drawn from the abdomen of the patient reached 2330 pounds. After an operation performed on the 29th of July, the opening did not close, and a constant discharge of fluid occurred for nine days. A renewal of the operation was not demanded until the ensuing 16th of August. During the interval it is supposed that fifty-three pounds of fluid were discharged, making the entire amount lost during seventeen months and twelve days 2383 pounds, and this in sixty operations, being on an average of about thirty-five pounds each operation.

Notwithstanding the extent and rapidity of the serous effusion in this case, excessive thirst was experienced for only a short period.

A post-mortem examination, we are told, revealed an omental cake (?) from which a broad band extended to the fundus uteri to which it was attached.

On "Criminal Abortion," by Dr. Wm. McCollom. Dr. McC. exhibits a just spirit in his earnest and pointed reprobation of this crime against nature and humanity, equally condemned by the laws of God and of man. Unfortunately, from an entire ignorance of the reprehensible nature of the act, and the injury to health inflicted by it upon the female constitution, entailing always more or less severe and protracted, often permanent, suffering, occasionally even a prompt destruction of life, it has been gradually on the increase in our midst, not merely in cases in which it is prompted by the desire to conceal the effects of an illicit sexual intercourse, but by married women, to rid themselves of the care and responsibilities of maternity. But mere denunciation, mere discussion of the physical evils resulting from the induction of abortion in professional publications is not calculated to put a stop to the practice. Dr. McC. presents no suggestion as to any efficient means for its prevention.

Dr. B. F. KETCHUM presents a very excellent account of "cerebro-spinal meningitis" as it prevailed epidemically along the valley of the Connecticut River. The usual symptoms were chill, severe pain of head, nape of neck, and occasionally extending down the spine, sometimes confined to one joint, usually that of the ankle; vomiting, partial coma or delirium, opisthotonos, deafness, dilated pupil, feeble pulse, pinched countenance, mottled appearance of surface from ecchymoses, varying in size in different cases, or from a retarded condition of the capillary circulation of the skin; surface cool in the early stage, followed by reaction, increased heat, full and excited pulse, active delirium; still later in

the disease there was partial delirium, feeble frequent pulse, dilated pupil, with decided opisthotonos. The tongue was usually moist, slightly coated, no sordes on teeth, no disturbance of bowels. The unusual symptoms were epistaxis and congestion of lungs or brain. In several cases there was such a spasmodic action of the muscles of the jaws as to cause a fracture of a tooth.

In the favourable cases vomiting ceased, consciousness returned, the ecchymoses disappeared, the circulation became more equalized, and a free perspiration occurred.

The youngest patient was four years of age, the eldest forty. All the patients excepting two were males, being in the proportion of one female to fourteen males of those attacked.

The duration of the disease depended upon the severity of the attack, the stage of the disease at which the treatment was commenced, and the nature of the treatment. Some patients lived five or six weeks from the date of attack, and died from congestion of the brain. In most of the patients who recovered improvement occurred within forty-eight hours, and convalescence set in within a few days. In other cases reaction never occurred, and three or four died within from twelve to forty-eight hours from the attack, with a complete depression of the nervous system, and cessation of action in the vital organs. No relapses or second attacks were known to have occurred.

From Dr. K.'s experience he concludes that the disease was not contagious, nor capable of being conveyed from one person to another.

The sequelæ were deafness and impairment of intellect, of shorter or longer duration.

Dr. K. has tried all plans of treatment, diffusible stimulants, quinia in all sized doses, alteratives, hot and steam baths, all forms of counter irritation, and bleeding. Venesection practised early in the attack, the blood being taken from a large opening in a full stream so as to relieve promptly the congestion of the nervous centres, Dr. K. found to be the only treatment to be relied on. At a later period of the disease venesection was injurious. Death was preceded by congestion of the brain. A few who died shortly after the commencement of the attack appeared to succumb to paralysis of the heart, or to one form of asthenia.

The post-mortem appearances varied somewhat according to the stage of the disease at which death took place. In all cases there was congestion of the vessels of the meninges and surface of the brain and of the spinal marrow. In those who survived the attack a few days there was also inflammation of the arachnoid with its results, viz., exudation of lymph and in one case suppuration. When death took place still later, the effusion was considerable. In the cases of rapid death the cavities of the heart were invariably filled with blood; when death took place at a later period the heart had an anæmic appearance. In several cases there was more or less congestion of the lungs.

After a short memoir of Dr. N. W. Fairchild, a deceased member of the Vermont Medical Society, by Dr. H. F. Stevens, there follows a paper on "Morbus Coxarius," by Dr. Benjamin Fairchild. The remarks of the author in reference to this serious and unfortunately too frequent disease of childhood, youth, and early manhood have little of novelty to press them upon our notice, nor is the plan of treatment one the results of which are of such a character as to demand for it a favourable reception.

The concluding article in the present volume of *Transactions* comprises several tables exhibiting the number and ratio of those exempted from military service under the drafts of 1863-64, in each district of the State of Vermont, in the whole State, and in the United States. The average measurement of chest, the average height and ages of the men examined in the United States under the draft of 1864, and in the several districts of Vermont, save the first.

The number of men examined under the draft of 1863 was, for the United States 255,188, for Vermont 6,719. The number exempted from military duty, in consequence of physical and mental disability, was, for the United States, 80,138, or a ratio per 1000 of 314.02, for Vermont 2,187, or a ration per 1000 of 324.89

The number of men examined under the draft of 1864 was, in the United

States, 61,333. The number exempted for the United States was 15,789, a ratio per thousand of 257.02. The number examined in Vermont was 273, of which number 93 were exempted, being a ratio per thousand of 340.76.

3. The address of the president of the *Indiana State Medical Society*, Dr. M. H. Harding, had for its theme "The Effects of Climate and Temperature upon Health and National Character." The questions involved in the inquiry as to the climatic influences exerted upon the health and national characteristics of the human being, important as they are to the physician, are equally so to those not of the medical profession. The entire subject is one of vast extent, and requires for its proper elucidation a much larger amount of well attested and properly collated facts than we now possess. So far as it is touched upon by Dr. H., and nothing more can be expected in a discourse like that before us, considering the magnitude of the subject and the limited time to which the speaker is necessarily limited—the views he has expressed in relation to climatic influence are in the main correct. No new facts, however, are elicited, nor are the facts already adduced made use of for the establishment of any novel or more plausible theory of the influence of climate than that now commonly received.

Dr. V. Kersey presents a paper on "Cholagogues and the indications for their use." Without crediting Dr. K. with any very great amount of originality of views in respect to the subjects discussed by him, we find his teachings in relation to the physiology of the liver, the general results of a deficient secretion of bile, and the therapeutic agents by which its secretion may be promoted, accord very nearly with those taught by recent authorities. The paper deserves a careful perusal. We have even among physicians, from whom we should expect more exact language, much talk respecting bilious conditions and diseases, and the remedies demanded for their removal: and yet, we are well convinced that a more exact acquaintance with the physiology of the liver, with the true pathology of the morbid phenomena to which the term bilious is applied, and the true action of the leading antibilious remedies, would somewhat modify their practice in the so-called bilious affections, while their patients would be saved from the infliction upon them of not a little mischief.

"Thoughts on Asiatic Cholera, its Mode of Propagation and Proper Treatment." By Dr. L. R. Johnson. "Cholera." By Dr. W. Y. Harvey. "The Pathology and Treatment of Cholera." By Dr. R. E. Haughton. These three papers on cholera, which occupy altogether some twenty-one pages, may be dismissed with a very few words of comment. They are calculated to throw but little if any new light upon the history, pathology, or therapeutics of what is known to us as Asiatic or epidemic cholera. They comprise a few familiar facts, loosely stated, and many statements without a sufficient series of observations, or of statistics to establish their accuracy or to show their direct relationship with the conclusions they are supposed to favour.

Dr. Johnson maintains that cholera is contagious, being communicable by contact with the sick or through the medium of the choleraic excretions. Filth and a stagnant atmosphere may, he admits, act as predisposing and intensifying causes of the disease; though its inroads have by no means been confined to filthy localities. He believes these have less to do with the spread of cholera than the density of the population, and the frequency of large crowded assemblages. Equally certain is it, Dr. J. asserts, that the idea that cholera is in any way dependent on the condition of the atmosphere as to temperature, moisture, or electrical changes is erroneous; he considers that these atmospherical conditions have little to do with the prevalence or severity of the disease.

Dr. Harvey ranges disturbed electrical conditions, atmospheric heat and moisture among the causes of cholera. He considers the disease to be neither contagious nor infectious, but simply epidemic; hence he concludes that no more reason exists for running away from cholera than from a common cold. Those who are most with the disease, he remarks, and fear it least fare the best.

Dr. H. presents a very novel, but, we may add, entirely untenable theory in explanation of the production of the choleraic poison.

The pathology of cholera taught by Dr. Haughton, though defective, appears

to us to be the most plausible; the most in accordance with the characteristic features of the disease; the succession of the morbid phenomena from the commencement to the close of the attack, and with well attested physiologico-pathological facts.

On "The Radical Treatment of Inguinal Hernia." By Dr. James Thompson. The radical treatment proposed by Dr. T. consists in the induction of adhesive inflammation in and around the inguinal canal by an operation devised by himself. Seven cases of inguinal hernia were operated on according to the plan suggested by Dr. T.; five were cured. In one case failure was due to the breaking of a part of the instrument on the fourth day, submission to any future treatment being refused. In another case death was the result of aneurism. For a description of the operation, and of the instruments used, the reader is referred to Dr. T.'s paper.

In the same paper Dr. T. relates "a case of epilepsy cured by trephining." Thomas Jefferson, private 4th U. S. artillery, aged forty-two years, eight years prior to enlistment was struck on the head, and a fracture was induced near the mastoid process of the temporal bone. His statement was that he was "knocked dead" for some time, and was unable to work for three months, when he had "a fit;" after about eight days a second; subsequently he had a fit every month, preceded by a sickening epigastric pain and drowsiness. In October, 1864, he applied for a discharge from the army. In the latter part of February, 1865, during a true epileptic convulsion, Dr. T. trephined the patient directly over the fracture. A spicula of bone found pressing upon the dura mater was removed. The wound was closed with silk suture, and cold water dressing applied. On the third day after the operation there was an attack of delirium caused by the patient drinking an ounce of whiskey. A few ounces of blood were taken from the arm which was followed in a few hours by a state of calm. A dose of sulph. magnesia was given him. He took nitrate of silver during two months. The scalp healed in eight weeks. October 2, 1865, the patient had been already several months on duty, having had no return of the disease since he was trephined.

A very sensible article on "Excision of Bone" is by Dr. J. A. Comingore. From a very careful perusal of it the surgeon, whether in the army or in civil practice, will derive no little instruction. That by excision even of the larger joints, but especially along the shaft of the long bones, in cases in which formerly amputation of the entire limb, or at least of a portion of it, was considered imperative in order to save the patient's life, useful limbs may be preserved, without any additional peril of life to the patient, is now placed beyond the possibility of doubt. All that is got to be learned is, what are the cases in which, and what the circumstances under which excision may be performed with a fair prospect of success, and in what cases, and under what circumstances will it be improper to attempt it. The recent experience of surgeons, both at home and abroad, render it very probable that the operation of excision is applicable to a much larger list of cases than it has yet been applied to.

The next paper is by Dr. T. Parvin, and is entitled "Vaginal Fistules; a few words upon their Etiology, and upon some of the Past and Present Methods of Treatment." This is a brief but very neatly drawn up monograph which, though containing nothing absolutely new, may be read with interest. Compilations, we may remark, however well prepared, do not seem to us to be exactly the class of papers which are best suited for the Transactions of our State or National Medical organizations.

This last remark may, with equal propriety, be applied to the next paper, on "Human Entozoa." By Dr. W. B. Fletcher. One word of apology may, it is true, be offered for the preparation of the paper of Dr. F., which is, that reliable accounts of the results of recent researches in respect to the subject treated of by the former, are not so readily attainable by physicians generally; and yet, to every member of the medical profession all that relates to human entozoa—the circumstances connected with their generation, their nutrition, and their metamorphoses—is of no trifling importance.

The present volume of Transactions closes with a very rapid outline of "The

Progress of Medical Science," from the times of Hippocrates to the present day, by Dr. H. C. Cole. When we state that the entire report occupies only about two pages, the outline it presents must, it is evident, be only a very faint one.

D. F. C.

ART. XXI.—*Reports of American Hospitals for the Insane*:—

1. *Of the State Asylum, at Trenton, N. J., for the year 1865.*
2. *Of the Mount Hope Institution, for the year 1865.*
3. *Of the Central Ohio Asylum, for the fiscal year 1864-65.*
4. *Of the Southern Ohio Asylum, for the fiscal year 1864-65.*
5. *Of the Longview Asylum, for the fiscal year 1864-65.*
6. *Of the Indiana Hospital, for the fiscal year 1864-65.*
7. *Of the Iowa Hospital, for the fiscal year 1864-65.*
8. *Of the New Hampshire Asylum, for the fiscal year 1864-65.*
9. *Of the New York City Asylum, for the year 1865.*
10. *Of the Asylum for Insane Convicts, Auburn, N. Y., for the fiscal year 1864-65.*

1. At the present time, when, as we believe, the true interests of the insane of our country are at stake, it is "devoutly to be wished" that in every State the following language of Dr. Buttolph, in his report for the hospital at Trenton, for the year 1865, were strictly applicable:—

"I may say with pleasure and pride," remarks the doctor, "in behalf of the authorities and people of the State, that they seem entirely willing, and even anxious, to provide ample accommodation, *in the institution*, for the care and treatment of *all who are insane, whether they be regarded as curable or otherwise.*"

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients in hospital January 1, 1865	148	185	333
Admitted in course of the fiscal year	98	98	196
Whole number	246	283	529
Discharged, including deaths	72	90	162
Remaining Dec. 31, 1865	174	193	367
Of the discharged there were cured	32	40	72
Died	17	14	31

"Death occurred in 10 cases from general exhaustion; in 2 from congestion of the lungs; in 3 from exhaustion of acute mania; in 6 from consumption; in 3 from epilepsy; in 1 from erysipelas of the head; in 1 from apoplexy; in 1 from delirium tremens; in 2 from general paralysis; in 1 from disease of the heart, and in 1 from suffocation arising from disease of the throat and neck, internal and external."

The aerated or unfermented bread has been used "with great satisfaction" at this hospital, throughout the year.

The demand for accommodations had so increased that the State legislature had authorized an extension of the building; and it had been determined to erect six wings or "sections," three at either extremity of the present edifice. The three will be placed upon as many sides of a square, the fourth side to be occupied by a fence, thus forming a convenient airing court for the most disordered patients. These buildings, some of them begun, will, when completed, accommodate two hundred persons, making the proper capacity of the hospital five hundred.

2. The physician's report, for 1865, of the *Mount Hope Institution*, is preceded by an essay entitled, "*The late Trial for Conspiracy, of the Physician and Sister Superior of the Institution, before the Circuit Court of Baltimore County; its Psychological Aspect.*" From this account it appears evident that the trial mentioned was instigated by one of those profoundly disordered, but

yet, in some respects, shrewd, cunning, "smart," and active minds which, at various times and places, have annoyed their relatives and friends and tormented the officers of the hospitals for the insane. We have no room even for a brief compend of the essay, and must refer the reader to itself if he wishes to obtain a knowledge of "the merits of the case."

The trial obtained a wide notoriety, and awakened, for the defendants, the anxious sympathy of the officers of other hospitals. Their triumphant vindication before the court, as demonstrated in the verdict of "not guilty," is an evidence that the tribunals of the law can sometimes, if not always, discriminate between soundness of mind and that form of insanity in which there is "method in madness."

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients at the beginning of the year	110	116	226
Admitted in course of the year	175	64	239
Whole number	285	180	465
Discharged, including deaths	177	61	238
Remaining at the end of the year	110	117	227
Of the discharged, there were cured	29	26	55
Died	11	8	19

Deaths from pulmonary consumption, 5; apoplexy, 4; chronic dysentery, 2; typhomania, 2; softening of the brain, 2; pneumonia, epilepsy, mania, and old age, 1 each.

Besides the above-mentioned patients, there were, in the course of the year, 132 cases of mania-à-potu in the hospital—at the beginning of the year, 4; admitted, 128; discharged cured, 127; died, 4; remaining at the end of the year, 1.

"The *abuse of opium*," remarks Dr. Stokes, "is recorded as the cause of insanity in seven cases. We have good reason for believing that this most destructive habit is on the increase. The injurious influence of the practice on many constitutions is much more serious than is commonly supposed. It not unfrequently proves the cause of exceedingly troublesome and obscure nervous affections which cannot be cured whilst its use is persisted in. But it is astonishing to what enormous doses of this drug the system may become habituated. One of our patients had become accustomed, as his daily allowance, to the consumption of 156 grains of solid gum opium. In about three months the habit was abandoned without any serious consequences."

3. The report of the *Central Ohio Lunatic Asylum*, for the official year ending with the 31st of October, 1865, is signed by Dr. William L. Peck, who succeeded Dr. Hills, as Superintendent.

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients at the beginning of the year	124	141	265
Admitted in course of the year	90	98	188
Whole number	214	239	453
Discharged, including deaths	80	94	174
Remaining at the end of the year	134	145	279
Of the discharged there were cured	37	40	77
Died	11	16	27

Deaths from exhaustion of acute mania, 5; typhomania, 1; organic lesions of the brain, 3; general paralysis, 4; epilepsy, 1; exhaustion and general decay, 1; inanition, 2; consumption, 6; inflammation of the lungs, 1; caries of the vertebræ, 1; suicide, 3—a total of 28, or one more than above stated.

The report contains a mass of tabulated numerical statistics, but absolutely nothing further in regard to insanity or its medical treatment. Dr. Peck leaves the tables to "speak for themselves," and has "no favourite theories to discuss, or hobbies to parade for inspection."

Extensive repairs of the buildings were made in the course of the year.

Over, 1,200 gallons of the syrup of "Sorgho" was consumed. The plant is raised to some extent on the hospital farm. Dr. Peck proposes to extend its

cultivation, and to manufacture the syrup, believing that the institution may be wholly supplied from its own premises.

4. The report of the *Southern Ohio Lunatic Asylum*, for the official year ending with the 31st of October, 1865, contains the statistics not of that period alone but for the first ten years of the operations of the hospital.

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients at the beginning of the year	72	90	162
Admitted in course of the year	43	52	95
Whole number	115	142	257
Discharged, including deaths	38	48	86
Remaining at the end of the year	77	94	171
Of the discharged there were cured	22	31	53
Died	6	6	12

Deaths from mania, 4; consumption, 3; paralysis, apoplexy, dysentery, disease of heart, and disease of kidney, 1 each.

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients admitted from Sept. 1, 1855, to Oct. 31, 1865	578	596	1,174
Discharged cured	311	307	618
Died	74	49	123
Insanity attributed to "war excitement"	7	9	16
Between 20 and 30 years of age when admitted	201	202	403
" 30 and 40 " "	149	150	299
Single	289	174	463
Married	259	357	616
"Widowed"	30	65	95
Natives of Ohio	250	230	480
Natives of other countries than the United States	162	196	358

Of 896 cases of less duration than one year, 544, or 60.71 per ct. were cured.

Of 239 " of greater " " " " 57, or 23 " " "

The reason of the large percentage of cures at this hospital, as well as at the other State institutions in Ohio, is, that it is their established policy to discharge cases supposed to be incurable, for the purpose of admitting such as are believed to be curable. The patients thus discharged "drift," according to Dr. Gundry, "into the various infirmaries, or (where these do not exist), the jails of the counties of which they were residents." The doctor condemns this course "except as a temporary measure, and in itself the lesser (less?) of two great evils." In discussing the methods by which it may be obviated, he passes in review the scheme of separate establishments for the chronic insane, and stamps it with the seal of condemnation. The method which he approves is "the provision for the care and treatment of the insane of both classes (the recent and the chronic) alike, by keeping pace with the increase of the insane by the increased accommodations provided for their treatment."

5. The report of the *Longview Asylum* (Hamilton Co., Ohio), for the fiscal year ending October 31, 1865, furnishes the subjoined statistics.

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients at the beginning of the year . . .	175	192	397
Admitted in course of the year	73	90	163
Whole number	248	282	530
Discharged, including deaths	65	89	154
Remaining, Dec. 31	183	173	376
Of those discharged, there were cured . . .	35	55	90
Died	17	13	30

Died of phthisis pulmonalis, 8; general paralysis, 5; epilepsy, 4; typhoid

pneumonia, 3; gastro-enteritis, 3; maniacal exhaustion, 3; marasmus, 2; apoplexy, 1; suicide, 1.

In regard to the late civil war as a generator of mental disorder, Dr. Langdon says: "Very few cases coming under our care could be attributed to such cause. On the contrary, indeed, it is the almost uniform testimony of physicians in general practice, that during all the four years of our dreadful conflict diseases of the nervous system were less prevalent than before. It was believed that when the war should end and the sustaining excitement had passed away, people would reflect more profoundly upon the calamities that had fallen upon the nation, and more especially upon themselves in the loss of relatives, friends, and property, and that then there would come more grief, despondency, insanity. This, however, so far as we can perceive, is not being justified by the facts.

"That some have been made insane by the distresses and accidents of war is undoubtedly true, but the increase in the number of our inmates is owing, in the main, to the operation of more common causes. Prominent among these I feel it a duty to refer, in an especial manner, to the intemperate use of alcoholic stimulants. Of 1,181 patients received here, 145 were insane from this cause alone. This bad influence of a bad habit was particularly manifest during and more immediately subsequent to the rebellion, and gives additional confirmation to what has been observed in the history of all civilized nations, namely, that when any great calamity, whether of war, famine, pestilence, or monetary crisis, falls upon a people, they in large numbers take either to praying or to drinking."

6. The report of the *Indiana Hospital for the Insane*, for the official year ending with the 31st of October, 1865, is signed by Dr. Wilson Lockhart, as Superintendent. We are not informed of the time at which he assumed the duties of the office, or of that of the resignation of his predecessor, Dr. Woodburn.

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients at the beginning of the year	140	144	284
Admitted in course of the year	100	89	189
Whole number	240	233	473
Discharged, including deaths	114	97	211
Remaining at the end of the year	127	135	262
Of the discharged, there were cured	58	49	107
Died	13	5	18

Died of exhaustion from acute mania, 3; apoplexy, 4; general paralysis, 1; marasmus, 4; acute dysentery, 3; pulmonary consumption, 2; pneumonia, 1.

This report is brief, and almost wholly devoted to the condition, the needs, and the recent improvements of the buildings.

7. The reports of the *Iowa Hospital for the Insane* are biennial, but owing to a recent change of the Statute law the one now before us embraces a period of but twenty-three months, ending with the close of October, 1865.

On the first of the month just mentioned, Dr. Patterson retired from the superintendence of the hospital, and was succeeded by Dr. Mark Ranney, for many years an assistant physician at the Butler Hospital and the McLean Asylum.

The report of the trustees bestows the highest encomiums upon Dr. Patterson. His successor, from his ability and long experience, is well qualified to fill the place.

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients in hospital December 1, 1863	117	99	216
Admitted in 23 months	127	142	269
Whole number	244	241	485
Discharged, including deaths	98	103	201
Remaining October 30, 1865	146	138	284
Of the discharged there were cured	19	31	50
Died	27	28	55

Died of exhaustion from chronic insanity, 4; acute mania, 3; diarrhœa and

dysentery, 15; consumption, 9; epilepsy, 10; general paralysis, 4; erysipelas, 4; apoplexy, 2; softening of the brain, abscess of the lungs, peritonitis, and diabetes, 1 each.

"The large mortality from diarrhœa and dysentery—our great foes," remarks Dr. Ranney, "should engage attention and lead to measures to prevent or diminish it, if possible. That something can be done in this direction I feel sure; and strong reasons exist why there should be no delay. In the production of these disorders much is due, undoubtedly, to the imperfect construction of sewers and air-ducts."

"The weekly, social, and other entertainments have been kept up with great regularity, and are a source of incalculable benefit to the household. They are looked forward to with earnest interest; any interruption is felt to be a great deprivation."

"Of the forty cases (of epilepsy) now in the hospital, not one came under treatment until three or four years had elapsed from the period of first attack."

8. The numerical results of the official year 1864–65, at the *New Hampshire Asylum for the Insane*, are as follows:—

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients in hospital, May 1, 1864	103	114	217
Admitted in course of the year	59	48	107
Whole number	162	162	324
Discharged, including deaths	59	42	102 ¹
Remaining, May 1, 1865	103	120	223
Of the discharged, there were cured . . .	19	23	42
Died	17	5	22

Deaths from tubercular consumption, 5; exhaustion of acute mania, 6; apoplexy, 3; chronic insanity, 2; old age, 2; chronic diarrhœa, general paralysis, dysentery, and epilepsy, 1 each.

Dr. Bancroft very justly says: "The usefulness of an asylum is not measured by the number of those who have hopes of recovery, for the large class who are beyond the possibility of restoration are in such conditions as to render residence at the asylum, with its better means of care and management, very desirable, if not wholly indispensable, to the well-being of the individual.

"The numerical statement of a year's operations is soon made, and gives but a meagre skeleton of its real labours. No adequate idea of these can be gained except by a personal observation of the demands to be provided for; innumerable in variety, springing from many morbid conditions, mental and bodily, presented in any considerable number of insane persons.

"To answer these demands by the use of appropriate restorative influences, wherever in the scale the lesion may be, from the simplest physical disturbance up to a derangement of the highest moral forces, this is the work which crowds the hours, but admits of only a very imperfect written record. The only material for a just record of these labours could be found in the personal impressions now incorporated in the lives of those on whom they have been bestowed."

9. The report of Dr. Ralph L. Parsons, successor of Dr. Ranney as Physician to the *New York City Lunatic Asylum*, opens with a history of an endemic typhus fever which was raging at the beginning of the year 1865, the time of the last preceding report. Patients attacked with the fever had already been removed to the fever hospital. In the course of the first four months of the year covered by the report, *seventy-seven* additional cases were similarly transferred. *Thirty-one* of them died.

This was one of the most remarkable instances of scourging disease, whether endemic or epidemic, that have occurred in our hospitals for the insane. Dr. Ranney, the physician, Dr. Marvin, one of the assistant physicians, and two female attendants, were among its victims. The source of the disease was believed to be contagion, although it is not known by whom it was introduced.

¹ So given, in words, in the report; but it should be 101 to correspond with the other numbers.

Among the influences favourable to its development, the report mentions a "greatly overcrowded" hospital, deficiency of clothing and personal cleanliness, and defective water-closets and sewers.

	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients in hospital, January 1, 1865	261	498	759
Admitted in course of the year	208	317	525
Whole number	469	815	1284
Discharged, including deaths	246	302	548
Remaining, December 31, 1865	223	513	736
Of the discharged there were cured			192
Died	66	61	127

Deaths from *asthenia*, 21; *phthisis pulmonalis*, 17; *paralysie générale*, 16; exhaustion from *mania*, 14; *epilepsy*, 10; *chronic diarrhœa*, 6; *scorbutic cachexy*, 5; *old age*, 5; *dysentery*, 4; *typhomania*, 3; *congestion of brain*, 2; *pleuro-pneumonia*, 2; *paralysis*, 2; *albuminuria*, 2; *suicide*, 2; and one each from sixteen other diseases. These deaths do not include those by *typhus fever* above mentioned.

Among other improvements of the year was the erection of two pavilions, each sufficient for the accommodation of eighty patients. The crowded halls were thus partially relieved. But still, as ever heretofore, the number of apartments is inadequate to the preservation of the health of so large a number of inmates. "Toward the close of the winter, and in the spring of the year," says Dr. Parsons, "many of the patients suffer from *scorbutus*, and some of them die of this disease. Now, the same causes that produce *scorbutus* in some patients must act as depressants to others, thus diminishing the probabilities of their recovery. This is the more to be deprecated as the general tendency in the insane is to depression, with an enfeebled circulation, impaired nutrition, and imperfect innervation; hence they require sufficient warmth and a varied and nutritious diet. Neither of these conditions has heretofore been perfectly fulfilled."

10. At the *State Asylum for Insane Convicts*, at Auburn, N. Y., in the course of the official year ending with the close of September, 1865, nine patients were admitted, four of them from the State prison at Auburn, three from that at Clinton, and five from that at Sing Sing. These, with 71 at the beginning of the year, made the whole number 80. Three were discharged "well," one "much improved," and three by death. Remaining, September 30, 1865, 73.

"We have had no epidemical diseases," says Dr. Van Anden, "and can congratulate ourselves on a strict immunity from all maladies of a malignant character. * * * A majority of our inmates have evidently laboured under mental derangement for periods extending back further than the dates of their convictions. The proportion of demented cases is very great. * * * Many of our patients, however, are materially improved from time to time, and nearly all of them made more comfortable than they have ever been before.

"It not unfrequently happens that persons confined in our county jails for misdemeanors and crimes, are discovered to be labouring under mental disabilities amounting to incipient *mania*, *dementia*, or some other form of cerebral disease, and for whom no plea of unsoundness of mind is ever set up, or any defence offered on the ground of their irresponsibility. Oftentimes they are tried with little formality, and condemned to prisons, where, after a considerable period of time, they are found to be of unsound mind, and at last are brought under treatment when the favourable period for their improvement is past."

This testimony is not remarkably consistent with the popular cry of the too frequent resort to the plea of insanity as a shield against punishment for crime.

P. E.

ART. XXII.—*Recent Works on Cholera.*

1. *Cholera in its Home. With a Sketch of the Pathology and Treatment of the Disease.* By JOHN MACPHERSON, M.D., late Deputy Inspector-General of Hospitals H. M. Bengal Army, and formerly of the European General Hospital, Calcutta, &c. &c. Small 8vo. pp. 155. London: John Churchill & Sons. 1866.
2. *Cholera: Facts and Conclusions as to its Nature, Prevention, and Treatment.* By HENRY HARTSHORNE, A. M., M. D., Professor of Hygiene in the Auxiliary Faculty of Medicine Univ. Penn. 12mo. pp. 79. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1866.
3. *Epidemic Cholera: Its Pathology and Treatment.* By A. B. PALMER, M.D., Prof. Pathol., the Pract. Med. and of Hygiene in Univ. of Michigan, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 33. Detroit: 1866.
4. *Cholera: Its Characteristics, History, Treatment, Geographical Distribution of Different Epidemics, Suitable Sanitary Preventions, &c.* Illustrated with Lithographic Maps and Microscopic Drawings. Reprinted with Additions from the "Cincinnati Journal of Medicine." By WILLIAM B. FLETCHER, M.D. Cincinnati: 1866.
5. *A Communication from the City Physician on Asiatic Cholera. Is it a contagious disease?* 8vo. pp. 41, with two maps. Boston: 1866.
6. *Memoranda on Asiatic Cholera, its Mode of Spreading, and its Prevention.* By WILLIAM BUDD, M.D., &c. 8vo. pp. 21. Bristol: 1865.
7. *Brief Remarks on Cholera: being the result of observations during the two last outbreaks of Cholera in England and an attempt to advance a theory of that disease which shall lead to a more consistent method of treatment, &c.* By ROBERT J. SPITTA, M.D. London: 1866.
8. *Cholera; its Nature, Cause, and Treatment Simply, Scientifically, and Practically Explained.* By C. SEARLE, M.D., formerly of H. E. I. C. Madras Establishment. 8vo. pp. 8. London: 1866.

1. THE little volume of Dr. Macpherson is one of the most sensible and clever of the publications which the present outbreak of cholera has called forth. The author treats in separate sections of the etiology, pathology, treatment, and prophylaxis of the pestilence. Under the head of etiology we have embraced in five chapters a brief history of cholera, with a sketch of the atmospheric and other influences which are supposed to favour its outbreak and extension, and of the different theories which have been advanced to explain its diffusion; and the author comes to the sensible conclusion that "the time has not yet arrived when we can accept any exclusive theory, whether based on special views of the nature of cholera poison and its mode of diffusion, on contagion or on malaria."

In the three chapters devoted to the pathology of the disease the author describes in the first the symptoms of the disease and the morbid appearances; in the second he gives a survey of some affections which have points of resemblance with cholera, and in the third a sketch of the opinions which have been advanced in regard to its pathology. The author seems not to have arrived at any very definite conclusions on the last subject. He says: "We are after all brought back very much to the views of Rochoux and the Bombay Medical Board. We do not doubt the existence of a blood-poison, but as we do not know its nature (very possibly it may be a ferment, some nitrogenous organized body), so we cannot yet talk with precision of its *modus operandi*; and the assumption that there is a poison present does not necessarily tie us down to accepting only one method of its operation, nor to regard vomiting and purging necessarily as efforts of nature to eliminate a poison."

In the section on Treatment, the author discusses in separate chapters, first the various theories of treatment, second, the various remedies which have been employed, third, the classes of remedies, and fourth, the measures which he considers advisable in the different stages of the disease.

"The treatment of premonitory," Dr. M. says, "is essentially the same as that of ordinary diarrhoea, only that as a matter of precaution it is always wise

to add opium to our medicines. The old Indian pill of one grain of opium, with two of assafœtida may be given at once; or two grains of sugar of lead, with one grain of opium, or ten grains of Dover's powder, and repeated if necessary in a couple of hours, or an equivalent amount of laudanum in brandy or in aromatic water, or in common chalk mixture, will answer as well. The patient should lie down and keep himself warm, using bland diluent drinks, avoiding solid food; hot fomentations or warm cataplasms to the abdomen may prove soothing; and astringent or opiate enemata are often useful; should there be a tendency to colic, turpentine stupes or sinapisms to the abdomen may be required, and chlorodyne or mixtures akin to it relieve the pain. By such treatment the diarrhœa is usually checked, and the patient often saved from an attack of cholera. Of course all diarrhœa in cholera times is not necessarily that disease in its incipient stage.

"If there be the faintest suspicion of cholera I cannot recommend the employment even of mild emetics or aperients."

If the premonitory diarrhœa continue unchecked, and "the bilious discharges of diarrhœa are turning into the enormous rice-water evacuations of cholera, and vomiting has been superadded, and the circulation begins to fail, and cramps are very distressing," opium Dr. M. regards as "still our chief remedy for a time; and if it is to have a chance of acting, it should be presented in a fluid state. I prefer small doses of laudanum to any pills. Pills of one grain of opium, or of one grain of opium and five of calomel, are often given, but are speedily rejected or pass away. Of course a great portion of the laudanum is also rejected; and the practitioner, who must not be absent, must endeavour to estimate how much may have been retained. Small repeated doses of chloroform sometimes seem to quiet the stomach and relieve the cramps. Inhalations of chloroform often give temporary relief; small doses of calomel are sometimes retained, and if not given to meet any very certain indication at the time, may at a later period be supposed to aid the secretion of bile. Chalk powder, magnesia, or bismuth given in full doses may help to check the irritability of the stomach and the profusion of the discharges. At all events they are innocuous. I would apply the same remark to sugar of lead, or to vegetable astringents, if they can be retained. Injections of cold water into the rectum are said to have proved soothing; and I have sometimes thought injections containing sugar of lead or nitrate of silver beneficial. Stimulants are here of use to endeavour to assist the circulation: both alcohol in its various forms and diffusible stimuli. Small quantities of brandy-and-water-punch, much employed in former days in France, or small quantities of beer, which has lately been a favourite, may all be tried, as may suit the feelings of the patient or the circumstances of the case. Champagne is sometimes, for a time, grateful to the patient. Of diffusible stimulants, ether and ammonia are the most convenient, especially the latter; small doses of tincture of camphor or of turpentine I have sometimes thought useful. At this stage it is needless to attempt to load the stomach with food that cannot be retained. Small quantities of iced water, and pieces of ice allowed to melt in the mouth, have a much better chance of being retained than too copious draughts of water. The patient prefers cold to hot drinks, although the ancient elimination treatment prescribed warm ones. The patient complains of want of fresh air; and it is important that he should have plenty of air about him. I do not know that currents of hot air, inhalations of oxygen or other gases, or of moist air have ever been of any use. Meantime, every effort should be made by external applications to aid the capillary circulation and help to relieve the cramps. Frictions with turpentine and oil, or with dry ginger powder, or with cajeputi oil—as was once popular—all come under this head; as does the application of bottles of hot water or hot water tins, or bags of bran or hot fomentations. But the patient will not usually allow anything to be applied long, and in his excessive restlessness cannot bear even the ordinary coverings of a bed. The application of a hot-air bath was one of the earliest Indian remedies, and, although it could be used without disturbing the patient much, was of little use. Hot baths have sometimes appeared to me to give temporary relief, but they are exhausting, and everything that makes the patient quit the horizontal position is to be avoided."

Before collapse comes on, he says, opiates should be given up. "It is useless in this stage to give any drugs in the hope of their producing specific action, but we must not on this account intermit our efforts to be of use. Drinks must be given in small quantity to relieve the craving thirst. Stimulants are to be given sparingly, and their effect on the pulse or the respiration carefully watched. Large quantities of alcoholic stimulants are injurious at the time, and if retained, help to disturb the stomach, when reaction with absorption comes on. But I believe that in almost any stage no harm can be done by continuing the use of small quantities of ammonia. Violent measures of blistering the spine, applying caustic acids, or the actual cautery have been used in this stage in the expectation of rousing the patient; but nothing is to be expected from such means."

With regard to prophylaxis, Dr. M. refers to Prof. Parke's elaborate work on Hygiene (reviewed in the No. of this Journal for April, 1865) as containing a *résumé* of all that is to be done, and merely refers to a few general principles. With regard to quarantine, Dr. M. remarks that the general experience of the past has gone to show that it is a very imperfect prophylactic." He strongly advocates the necessity for the free use of disinfectants, and for a supply of pure drinking water.

"Chloride of lime or Condry's fluid should be added to the excreta, which should be immediately removed and buried; washing apparel should be plunged in boiling water or washed in water containing either of them. Woollen bedding or clothing should be exposed to a heat of 210 Fahr."

He urges the importance of removing filth, cesspools, stagnant water, and the adoption of the usually recognized measures for promoting cleanliness, free ventilation, and the avoidance of crowding.

Though the work under notice does not present any absolutely new facts, and certainly does not enlighten us as to the true pathology of cholera, it contains much that may be read with advantage, and the author having had large experience in the disease his views are entitled to a respectful consideration.

2. Dr. Hartshorne's brochure is devoted to a brief sketch of the history, nature, causation, prevention, and treatment of cholera.

As regards the nature of cholera, he expresses the conviction that it is "a poison spasm; a ganglionic tetanus," but we find no evidence adduced which can satisfy us that this view is anything more than mere hypothesis.

Dr. H. reviews with ability the various causes to which cholera has been ascribed, and gives as his conclusion "that animal decomposition is the one great promotive cause of cholera; to which heat and moisture, &c., are merely adjuncts."

With regard to prevention, Dr. H. maintains, perhaps too unconditionally in the face of recent facts, that quarantine "never has succeeded, and never can" succeed in arresting the progress of the disease, and "that *sanitary* police includes the sum total of available measures for the prevention of cholera in any place. He briefly but clearly indicates the hygienic measures to be adopted.

As regards treatment, Dr. H. reviews briefly the remedies which have attracted most attention, and recommends as most efficient the treatment by antispasmodics and mild stimulants in small doses at short intervals with ice and external frictions, &c. He particularly extols as efficacious in the rice-water stage the following mixture based upon a formula given to him by the late Prof. Horner: "R.—Chloroform. et tinct. opii et sp. camph. et sp. ammon. aromat. āā fʒjss; Creasot. gtt. iij; Ol. cinnamom. gtt. viij; sp. vin. gall. fʒij.—M. Dissolve a teaspoonful of this in a wineglassful of ice-water and give of that two teaspoonfuls every five minutes, followed each time by a lump of ice."

Without being able to adopt all Dr. H.'s views, we can commend his well-written book as containing much that is useful and worthy of attention.

3. Prof. Palmer in his pamphlet gives as the conclusions to which he has arrived, "that cholera is essentially produced by a peculiar poison, the exact nature of which is not fully understood; that this poison is aided in its production and diffusion by certain local conditions, the chief of which is filth; that the action of this poison in the system is promoted by the presence in the

blood of decomposing organic materials; that the effects of the poison are first manifested upon the ganglionic or organic system of nerves; that very generally, among the earliest and most important morbid effects which the *paralyzed* and deranged condition of the nervous force produces, are congestion and irritation of the nervous membrane of the alimentary canal, and profuse exhalations from its surface, leading to a watery diarrhœa, and at length to violent vomiting and purging of a nearly transparent fluid; that losses of the fluid portions of the blood together with the retention of certain excrementitious matters, aided, probably, by the peculiar cholera poison, so change the physical, chemical, and vital conditions of that fluid as to produce spasms of vessels, and cramps of various muscles—to produce obstructed circulation and respiration, and finally collapse and death; that occasionally, though very rarely, the cholera poison effects such changes in the blood and in the actions of the nervous system as to suspend the necessary life functions, and cause speedy death without the loss of fluids; but that such cases are so few and exceptional as to afford no basis for a rule of practice in the ordinary forms of the disease.”

It will be manifest to the careful observer that, in the above conclusions, the author has ingeniously mixed up a few facts with a large amount of hypothesis, a course which has never contributed to the advancement of positive knowledge.

As regards treatment, he considers that “opium in proper doses and combinations in the earlier stages of cholera, before the vital powers are much exhausted, and while irritation of the stomach is the most prominent symptom, is *the great remedy* in the disease; or at least one of the prominent and essential items of a correct treatment.”

4. The pamphlet of Dr. Fletcher, though it presents no new facts or ingenious hypotheses to throw light on the subject discussed, is a useful compilation, carefully made, and showing research. The author presents, briefly in succession, the history, symptoms, pathological appearances, course, duration and termination, causes and treatment of cholera.

5. Dr. Wm. Read, City Physician of Boston, in his “communication” restricts himself to the consideration of the contagiousness of cholera, and concludes that “cholera is contagious; not in the ordinary sense of the word, not as smallpox, or what are termed eruptive fevers, but in the sense of inoculation, by the introduction of the germs of the disease into the alimentary canal. “Avoid,” he adds, “this, and infection and the spread of the disease are impossible; and it will expire by limitation.” Cleanliness, scrupulous, exact and complete cleanliness is the perfect antidote, the impenetrable shield of safety. For want of this the poor, the squalid, and the careless imbibe the seeds of the disease, which are found in the clothing saturated with the poison, the unwashed person, the unclean vessels and in the close, unventilated rooms, impregnated with the exhalations from their crowded inmates, and where the air is full of death. It also follows, and with the certainty almost of a mathematical demonstration, that if the first foothold of cholera can be prevented, a community may be kept in perfect immunity.”

“If,” he adds, “the disease is one which requires a personal element for its initial term, all restriction may, with safety, be removed from articles of freight alone. It is with the passengers and their personal baggage, not the merchandise in the hold, that the danger lies; so that in the case of a vessel arriving on board of which the disease has made its appearance or which has sailed from a port where cholera existed at the time, to disembark the former at a suitable quarantine station, and purify those portions of the ship which have been occupied by them during the voyage, will be ample and sufficient protection. The merchandise may go free.”

We should no more wish to depreciate the value of cleanliness as a means of abating the violence of cholera and of limiting its spread, than we would that of vaccination or inoculation as a measure of protection from smallpox or for modifying its intensity; but that cleanliness is “a perfect antidote,” an impenetrable shield of safety against cholera is what we fear the history of the disease will not afford “a mathematical demonstration” of, any more than that

vaccination or inoculation affords *infallible* protection against smallpox or *invariably* even protects life.

6. The conclusions of Dr. Budd as given in his memoranda are : 1. That cholera is essentially contagious or communicable ; and, 2d, that it is disseminated exclusively by the liquid discharges from the intestinal canal of cholera patients. The poison of these discharges, he states, may be transmitted, 1st, by the soiled hands of attendants on the sick ; 2d, by means of bed and body linen, and other articles tainted with the rice-water discharges ; and 3d, through the medium of the soil.

To prevent the spread of cholera, Dr. Budd gives the following directions :—

Receive all discharges from the alimentary canal into vessels charged with a solution of chloride of zinc or some other powerful disinfectant. Keep the hands of all attendants on the sick scrupulously clean.

Let all the tainted beds and linen be immediately burnt.

To make sure against infection by water, let all water be boiled before drank.

Privies, drains, latrines, &c., should be disinfected twice daily.

The correctness of Dr. B.'s views in regard to the mode of propagation of cholera and the efficacy of the preventive means he advises, it seems to us remains to be proved. The facts he has adduced in their support are not satisfactory to our minds, and without entirely rejecting them we are not prepared with our present knowledge to accept them as established truths.

7. Dr. Spitta, in his brief remarks, admits that whether the poison of cholera be animal, vegetable, chemical, or electrical, has not been satisfactorily settled ; but he thinks the probabilities are greatly in favour of "some peculiar but hitherto inappreciable organism permeating the atmosphere ; which organism, though contained in nearly harmless proportion in the air when freely circulating, is capable of germinating rapidly into deadly concentration in the air when stagnant, or when brought in contact with organic matter when in a stage of decomposition." He further thinks that this poison "is introduced first into the alimentary canal by the food, liquid as much as solid, taken therein, and that, being thence absorbed, is carried in the blood to the rest of the body." Dr. S. conceives, as a deduction from his statements, that there are two stages of the disease ; "one in which the poison operates upon and irritates the alimentary canal ; the other in which it is absorbed into the blood," which he denominates respectively the stages of irritation and absorption.

Dr. S. enumerates the symptoms of these two stages without any regard to their order or succession, and of course shedding no light on their relation, one to the other.

The *regimental* treatment, Dr. S. states to be the same in both stages, and comprises three essentials : "First, the maintenance uninterruptedly of a perfectly recumbent posture ; second, the application of warm counter-irritants to the abdomen and to any other parts of the body which are cramped or painful ; and lastly, the administration of a light farinaceous diet, accompanied with copious supplies of unstimulating drinks."

The *medical* treatment, he says, differs in the two stages. In the first stage "the object is solely to allay the irritable state of the alimentary canal, with a view to the avoidance of inflammation. The remedy is *opium*," in small doses, frequently repeated, "and discontinued, lest internal congestion should ensue, as soon as a decidedly soothing effect on the alimentary canal has been produced." For the second stage (that "of absorption") "the remedy above all others" is, he says, "calomel, if carefully and judiciously administered, so as not to salivate." He advises it to "be given in very small though frequently repeated doses—a grain every half hour, in the smallest possible pill ; and discontinued either on the abatement of sickness, on the least increase in the power of the pulse, or on the slightest tinge of bile in the evacuations."

The prophylactic treatment may be comprised in two words, he says—"cleanliness and repose."

8. Dr. Searle assumes the cause of cholera "to be a poisonous condition of

the blood, operating as a sedative or powerfully depressing agent upon the functions of the several organs of life, through the medium of their capillary or organic structure; by virtue of which the heart, primarily the great circulating organ of the blood, becomes so enfeebled or reduced in power that congestive accumulation or stagnation of the blood takes place in the veins, and is more especially discernible in those organs or parts the most remote from the heart's influence, and in which accordingly the circulation is the most languid; and as this, from reasons I cannot stop to explain, is unquestionably the veins of the liver, stomach, and bowels (the so-called portal system); hence the symptoms so early experienced, of distension and oppression in these organs, attended not unfrequently by constipation, but followed soon after by diarrhœa, which is consequent on or occasioned by the effusion or oozing out of the serous or watery part of the blood into the bowels, from the preternaturally distended vessels of these organs."

According to Dr. S., the liver and kidneys now cease to perform their functions, and the disease becomes aggravated by the retention in the blood of the poisonous elementary constituents which it is the office of those organs to remove, and the blood soon after becomes thickened by the loss of its serum, so that its passage through the capillary vessels of the lungs and brain is impeded. "It is then," he maintains, "this depressing agency of the contaminated blood, upon the action of the heart principally, and powers of the system generally, from which the symptoms successively arise, and to which they are severally to be referred." The indications of treatment are therefore, according to Dr. S., to divest the blood of its poisonous contamination, which can only be done by restoring the action of the liver, kidneys, and skin; and the only remedy by which this can be effected is *calomel*. "Universal experience," he says, "testifies that a grain or two of calomel will, with almost unerring certainty, under ordinary circumstances, excite the liver, and occasion one or more bilious evacuations; and not only does this, but, as its influence is general on the system when received into the blood, it excites all the secretions, and not only these, but the brain and all the functions."

We need not stop to examine the above fancy sketch, since it must be apparent to every careful observer that it has but very slender foundation in facts, and derives no support from experience.

"Of all stimulants," Dr. S. is "of opinion that calomel is the most powerful, and only proper one," and that "no other stimulant than calomel is required." He gives it in all stages of the disease, increasing the dose with the urgency of the symptoms and the progress of the disease; and, as there is difficulty in introducing the medicine into the circulation in the advanced stage of the disease through the ordinary channel of the stomach, he suggests the propriety of its introduction by fumigation, or by adding to a clyster a solution of bichloride of mercury, in the quantity of a quarter of a grain, and repeating it every hour."

We have endeavoured, in the preceding pages, to lay before our readers a brief summary of the several works on cholera which have recently been published. It will be perceived that the authors have rather exercised their ingenuity in the construction of hypotheses than bestowed labour upon the development of facts.

All assume as the cause of the disease the presence of a poison in the blood, though no one pretends to have detected there any such poison, nor do any two agree as to the manner in which it acts. It is assumed that it makes its first impression on the ganglionic nervous system, causing spasm according to one (ganglionic tetanus, Hartshorne), and according to another (Palmer), paralysis of that system. It is contended by a third that its first action is on the heart, reducing its power of propelling the blood (Searle); by a fourth that it causes a spasm of the vessels of the lungs, thus preventing the flow of blood to these organs (Johnson); by a fifth again that the first action of the poison is on the alimentary canal, and that it is subsequently absorbed into the blood (Spitta). It would be unprofitable to examine into the plausibility of these hypotheses, founded as they are on no substantial basis. Equally profitless would it be to discuss the

various plans of treatment lauded by their respective advocates, since if we can rely on statistics, they do not seem to have lessened the fatality of the pestilence.

To advance our knowledge of the disease, a different course must be pursued. The disease must be studied at the bedside; its phenomena traced from their first incubation to the end; the succession and relation of the symptoms determined; and finally the lesions in all the organs and changes in the fluids of the system investigated with the aid of the microscope, chemical tests, and all the improved methods which the advanced science of our day have rendered available for the purpose.

We are happy to state that Dr. Lionel Beale is now engaged in this work, and we cannot doubt that the investigations of this excellent physiologist and experienced microscopist will shed new and important light upon the subject.

It may be added that, so far as these investigations have been made public, they confirm in many particulars the observations of the late Prof. Horner and of Dr. Neill as to the destruction of the epithelium of the gastro-intestinal mucous membrane, and sustain the pathology of the disease which we have advocated in the successive numbers of the *Medical News* for July, August, and September of the present year.

As soon as practicable, we shall place before our readers the results of Dr. Beale's investigations. Some we shall give in the "Quarterly Summary" of the present number of this Journal.

ART. XXIII.—*Manual of Materia Medica and Therapeutics; being an Abridgment of the late Dr. Pereira's Elements of Materia Medica, Arranged in Conformity with the British Pharmacopœia, and Adapted to the Use of Medical Practitioners, Chemists and Druggists, and Pharmaceutical Students, &c.* By FREDERICK JOHN FARRE, M.D., &c., assisted by ROBERT BENTLEY, M.R.C.S., &c., and by ROBERT WARINGTON, F.R.S., &c. Edited, with numerous references to the U. S. Pharmacopœia, and many other additions, by HORATIO C. WOOD, Jr., M.D., Prof. of Botany, University of Pennsylvania, with two hundred and thirty-six wood engravings. 8vo. pp. 1016. Philada.: Henry C. Lea. 1866.

THE present work is designed as a substitute for the extended treatise of Dr. Pereira with a certain class of inquirers into the principles of pharmacological science. For those readers and students whose time is limited, and who only are in quest of an outline exposition of the subject, it will answer the purpose satisfactorily. In traversing, for the purpose of condensation, so extended a field as that included by the immense researches of the lamented author, whatever is selected and presented as the fruits of his labour must have a value from the reliability attached to it, and the clearness with which it is presented. The attempt would be vain to produce a book, upon the same plan, and having the same objects in view, upon a reduced scale, which would rival that which may be made by simply collating from the contents of the great work of Dr. Pereira; and however we may feel with regard to the absence of the immense exposition of learning and research which characterizes the original, we cannot peruse the pages of this synopsis without recognizing the hand of the great master in pharmacological science.

Had the abridgment appeared as an original treatise, it would have made the reputation of its author; indeed, it reminds one of bygone days, when the lectures of Pereira first attracted attention in the *London Medical Gazette*, where his prelections were hardly as extended as the articles contained in this volume, when his name at once took place among the distinguished cultivators of the branch, ultimately to become pre-eminent.

To the profound student of the materia medica the encyclopedic treatise of the great English pharmacologist must ever remain a standard book of authority, of study, and reference, while as a monument of industry it will be a representative one of the age. It must be hereafter ranked with the first in the list upon

special branches of medicine, which stand prominently forward at different periods as evidences that minds existed capable of grasping these branches in all their exemplifications and details, and like the Treatise of Dioscorides, the Apparatus Medicaminum of Murray, the Dictionary of Merat and De Lens, or our United States Dispensatory, will be appealed to in after times to determine the sources of the knowledge which has enlightened the world in the department of Materia Medica. The abridgment of the work as it was issued from the English press, however calculated for the special market for which it was intended, was not suited for this country. It had no reference to our Pharmacopœia, and in addition did not embrace many articles upon which information would be sought. The task of adding such desiderata has devolved upon Dr. Horatio C. Wood, who has taken becoming pains to supply the deficiency. "Over one hundred articles on substances in the United States Pharmacopœia have thus been introduced; many of them, indeed, on subjects of but little importance, but others on drugs which occupy a prominent position amongst our everyday remedies."

Upon examining the contributions to the volume by Dr. Wood, we accord with him in the statement that the office of the American editor to the abridgment "has been no sinecure." It must be admitted that his labour has been faithfully and conscientiously performed.

The work is handsomely gotten up; is well printed in large type, and is ornamented with the illustrations of the American edition of Pereira's Elements, clearly impressed in their appropriate positions. We commend this Abridgment to American students as eminently fitted to meet their wants.

ART. XXIV.—*Reflex Paralysis: its Pathological Anatomy, and Relation to the Sympathetic Nervous System.* By M. GONZALEZ ECHEVERRIA, M. D. (Univ. of Paris), Physician to the Charity Hospital, New York; formerly Assistant Physician to the National Hospital for the Paralyzed and Epileptic, of London, etc. etc. 8vo. pp. 80. New York: Baillière Brothers, 1866.

In this interesting monograph, which originally appeared in the *New York Medical Journal* for April and May of this year, the author has collected from various sources and critically examined the history, symptoms, and anatomical lesions of many cases of paralysis, with the object of determining the histological changes which take place in the nervous system in reflex paralysis, and the facts indicating its relation to the sympathetic system.

Dr. Echeverria maintains that reflex paralysis is induced through the agency of the sympathetic system. This opinion he bases upon the intimate connection existing between the nerves usually affected and the ganglionic system. He thinks that the spinal origin of the latter and its important influence in the causation of fever and convulsions, often premonitory symptoms of reflex paralysis, most strongly sustains such a view. He also admits that cases of temporary paralysis may follow exhaustion of the incitability of the cerebrospinal and ganglionic centres.

The pathological alterations observed in the various cases of paralysis cited by our author may be summed up as follows:—

"A congestive state of the meninges, atrophy and granular degeneration of the anterior and lateral columns of the cord; same degeneration of the anterior cornua of the gray substance, not extending much further than the intermediolateral tracts; more or less abundance of corpora amylacea in both substances of the cord, especially with infantile paralysis; granular degeneration of the nerve-cells, with hypergenesis of brown pigment granules, mainly in those of the sympathetic ganglia; hypergenesis of nuclei and fibres in the neuroglia and connective tissue of the ganglia; and finally a fatty granular degeneration of the peripheral nerves—*neuritis propagata*—capable of being the only lesion accounting for the paralysis."

Dr. Echeverria has noticed in two instances of reflex paraplegia, paramount

contraction in the muscles of the paralyzed limbs. In infantile paralysis he finds that the muscles do not respond to the electric current directly applied. The application of an induced current, however, to muscles distant from those of the affected regions, often determines contraction of those which did not respond to the direct application of electricity. Our author says that he has noticed this phenomenon, especially in infantile paralysis, when faradization of muscles of the anterior femoral or of the gluteal region has determined manifest contraction of the gastrocnemius, or of the extensor digitorum, which did not appear on the current being directly applied to these very muscles.

We commend this monograph to our readers as one well worthy of attentive perusal. It is a useful addition to the literature of a very obscure class of affections.

J. A. M.

ART. XXV.—*Report of the Board of Health of the City and Port of Philadelphia to the Mayor, for 1865.* 8vo. pp. 66. Philadelphia.

FROM this report we learn that, with the exception of smallpox, which prevailed to the greatest extent during the earlier months of the year, and caused 524 deaths, being 264 more than were reported from the disease in 1864, no epidemic of an infectious or contagious character occurred during 1865.

From the well arranged and highly interesting statistics furnished by the report before us, we select the following general summaries:—

Births. The number of births registered during the year 1865 amounted to 15,428—being 163, or 1.04 per cent. less than in 1864. Of the births, 8,187 were males, and 7,241 females.

The number of births were the greatest in *October*, 1,379; then in *July*, 1,352; in *March*, 1,345; in *September*, 1,342; in *December*, 1,331; in *August*, 1,315; in *January*, 1,309; in *April*, 1,251; in *February*, 1,250; in *June*, 1,223; in *November*, 1,214; in *May*, 1,117.

The number of *twin births* was 179, an increase of 22 over the previous year.

Three sets of *triplets* were registered during the year, one in *August*, one in *September*, and one in *December*.

The number of births among the *coloured population* registered during the year amounted to 280, being 38 or 15.66 per cent. greater than in 1864.

The number reported as *stillbirths* for the year was 716: 391 males, 325 females.

Marriages. The number of marriages registered during the year was 6,864—exceeding those of 1864 by 112.

The number of marriages in each quarter of the year was as follows:—

First quarter, ending March 31,	1,702 = 24.79 per cent.
Second “ “ June 30,	1,629 = 23.74 “
Third “ “ Sept. 30,	1,833 = 26.71 “
Fourth “ “ Dec. 31,	1,700 = 24.76 “

Deaths. The number of interments in the city during the year amounted to 17,169, being a decrease from the previous year of 423, or 2.40 per cent. Of the interments, 15,772 were of whites, and 1,397 of coloured persons; 9,273 were of males, and 7,896 of females: adult males, 4,330; adult females, 3,657: male children, 4,943; female children, 4,239.

If from the entire number of interments we deduct the stillborn and the bodies brought into the city for interment, we have left for the actual number of deaths occurring within the city, 15,633, being about one in every 47 of the population. But to show the exact number of deaths from actual diseases which occurred in the city during 1865, there should have been deducted also, the deaths from violence and other accidental causes, 728, and those from old age, 408, making a total of 1,236. Some of these have been, no doubt, already included under the head of the dead that were brought into the city for interment.

The mortality of adults in 1865 = 7,987, was a decrease from 1864 of 207, or

2.52 per cent. The mortality of children = 9,182, was a decrease from 1864 of 206, or 2.19 per cent.

Of the entire number of deaths, 4,295, or 25.01 per cent. occurred in children under *one year of age*; 1,371, or 7.98 per cent. in those between *one and two years*; 1,644, or 9.57 per cent. in those between *two and five years*: only 321, or 1.86 per cent. occurred in those between the age of *ten and fifteen years*; while between the age of *twenty and thirty*, 1,957, or 11.39 per cent. deaths took place.

The total number of deaths in children under 10 years of age was 8,181, or 47.52 per cent., while those in adults over 70 years of age amounted to 1,162, or 6.80 per cent.

The following table shows the number of deaths per month during the year 1865:—

	Males.	Females.	Adults.	Children.	Total.
January	739	634	658	715	1,373
February	870	680	743	807	1,550
March	999	869	924	944	1,868
April	775	636	722	689	1,411
May	681	546	667	560	1,227
June	939	751	728	962	1,690
July	969	869	630	1,208	1,838
August	934	825	702	1,057	1,759
September	570	470	484	556	1,040
October	582	502	534	550	1,084
November	647	638	676	609	1,285
December	568	476	519	525	1,044

The greatest number of deaths reported from any one disease were those from *consumption of the lungs*, namely, 2,026, a decrease of 73 from those of 1864. The largest number of deaths from consumption took place in March, 240, and in November, 198. The smallest number occurred in September, 121, and in October, 127. The average of deaths per month was 169; per week, 39; per day, 6.

The next most destructive disease was *cholera infantum*, 884 deaths from which are recorded—being an increase over 1864 of 243: 471 were males, 413 females; 632 of the deaths were in infants under *one year of age*, and 217 in those between *one and two years*, and 35 between *five and ten years*.

From *typhoid fever* 773 deaths are recorded: namely, in males, 415; in females, 358. The deaths in adults amounted to 568, and those in children to 205.

There were 716 interments reported of *stillborn* infants—391 males and 325 females.

The deaths from *convulsions* amounted to 695, being 41 less than in 1864: 363 were in males, 332 in females; 40 were in adults, 655 in minors.

Six hundred and ninety-seven deaths are recorded as having resulted, vaguely, from *debility*, being 59 less than in 1864. In males, the deaths from this cause amounted to 379, and in females to 318: 272 were in adults, 425 in minors.

To *scarlet fever* is attributed 624 deaths, being 275 more than in 1864. Of these deaths 301 occurred in males, and 323 in females; 6 in adults, and 618 in children. Of the deaths 245 occurred in the first quarter of the year, 164 in the second, 111 in the third, and 104 in the fourth.

The mortality from *smallpox* was 524, an increase upon the preceding year of 264. The deaths in adults amounted to 151, in children to 373. In males the deaths amounted to 311, in females to 213. Among the deaths there were 50 coloured people, and five were brought from the country.

The deaths from *old age* were 408: 152 males, 256 females. The excess of deaths from old age in 1865 over those from the same cause in 1864 was 130.

The number of deaths from *inflammation of the brain* amounted in 1865 to 405—217 males, 188 females; 61 were in adults, and 344 in children: 372 of the

dead were born in the United States, and 24 were foreigners: of 9 the place of birth was unknown.

The number of deaths from *dysentery* was 371: 194 being in males, and 177 in females: 151 in adults, 220 in minors. Seventeen were brought from the country into the city for interment.

Diarrhœa gives, in 1865, 367 deaths, a decrease from the previous year of 87. Of the deaths 263 were in males, and 104 in females: 228 were in adults, 139 in children. Thirty-eight of the bodies were brought from the country.

Croup. From this disease the deaths amounted to 350, being a decrease from 1864 of 105. One hundred and eighty were in males, 170 in females. In children under 5 years of age the number of deaths was 307, or 87.71 per cent.

Typhus fever. The number of deaths from this disease was 334—170 males, 164 females—250 adults and 205 minors. Ninety-three of the deaths occurred in the Almshouse.

The number of deaths from *diphtheria* was 260, a decrease from the year 1864 of 97. One hundred and twenty-nine of the deaths were in males, 131 in females: 245 were in children—boys 122, girls 123. The deaths were distributed throughout the year as follows: During the *first* quarter there occurred 91; during the *second*, 54; during the *third*, 36; during the *fourth*, 79. Thirteen of the bodies were brought from the country.

Cancer was the cause of 188 deaths. The location of the cancer, as far as given, was the stomach and bowels, in 37; the uterus, in 35; the breast, in 21; the liver, in 11; the face and the rectum, each in 4; the nose, in 2; and the œsophagus, the pylorus, the leg, the testes, the lungs, the arm, each in one. The location of the cancer is not given in 68 cases.

Apoplexy was the reported cause of 181 deaths—100 occurring in males, and 81 in females. One hundred and seventy-five were in adults, 6 in minors.

Gunshot wounds. The deaths from this source amounted to 176, a decrease from 1864 of 190.

From *whooping-cough* 135 deaths are registered, being 48 more than in 1864. Of the deaths 54 were in males, 81 in females. All the deaths occurred in minors.

Delirium tremens is set down as the cause of death in 67 cases—62 males, 5 females. Twenty-five of the patients were born in the United States; 29 were of foreign birth, and of 13 the nativity was unknown. Twelve of the cases occurred in the Almshouse.

Spotted fever. Under this head were reported 62 deaths—28 in males, 34 in females: 11 were in adults and 51 in minors. Five of the bodies were brought from the country.

There were registered 31 deaths from *suicide*: 25 in males, 6 in females. Of the deceased 12 were born in the United States; 14 were of foreign birth; of 5 the nativity was unknown.

The number of deaths set down as from *tumours*, without any further information, was 25—8 in males, 17 in females.

Hernia. The deaths reported from hernia amounted to 15, of which 13 were in adults, and 2 in minors. Nine were born in this country, and 6 abroad.

Murder. The number of deaths registered from violence or murder was 13, of which 12 were in males, and one in a female: 8 were natives of the United States, 4 of foreign birth, and of one the nativity was unknown.

Hydrophobia. Two deaths are recorded from hydrophobia; both were in children, 16 and 20 years of age; both females, born in the United States.

Of deaths from *congestion of the brain* the number recorded in 1865 was 386—males 218, females 168. From *inflammation of the brain*, 405—males 217, females 188. From *cerebro-spinal meningitis*, 130—74 males, 56 females.

Of deaths from *congestion of the lungs*, the number recorded in 1865 was 136—males 73, females 63. From *inflammation of the lungs*, 776—males 431, females 345. From *inflammation of the bronchi*, 119—males 55, females 64. From *inflammation of the pleura*, 22—males 13, females 9. From *inflammation of the larynx*, 49—males 25, females 24.

Of deaths from *erysipelas*, the number recorded in 1865 was 79—males 50, females 29. From measles, 54—males 23, females 31.

D. F. C.

ART. XXVI.—*On Spermatorrhœa: its Causes, Symptomatology, Pathology, Prognosis, Diagnosis, and Treatment.* By ROBERTS BARTHOLOW, A. M., M. D., Professor of Physics and Medical Chemistry in the Medical College of Ohio; Lecturer on Clinical Medicine, and Physician to St. John's Hospital, Cincinnati; formerly Assist. Surgeon (Captain) U. S. Army, etc. etc. 12mo. pp. 112. New York: William Wood & Co., 1866.

THIS little volume contains a brief and well-written summary of what has been learned about masturbation and spermatorrhœa since the days of Hippocrates, and the views of the most recent and most respectable writers on the subject.

It recalls to remembrance Dr. Rozier's *Habitudes Secrètes chez les Femmes*, and Tissot's well-known book, in which there is a chapter on "Simple Gonorrhœa," defined by Galen to be "a flow of semen without erection." These and similar works have established in the popular mind excessive dread of spermatorrhœa. It is by no means rare to meet with patients who fancy themselves to be afflicted with this malady simply because they discover a slight discharge of mucus from the urethra. This error leads many into the hands of advertising practitioners, who pick their pockets and torture them with Lallemand's *porte caustique*, often to the serious and permanent damage of their urinary organs, without relieving their minds from disorder in this connection.

"The true pathology of spermatorrhœa," the author is "disposed to regard," "essentially as a deranged state of the spinal system," consequent, "in a vast majority of cases as they occur in this country," on "venereal excesses and especially masturbation."

In reference to the application of solid nitrate of silver to the prostate, as practised by Lallemand, whose name is most extensively known in connection with the malady under consideration, Dr. Bartholow says (page 80): "Very diverse views have obtained since, as to the utility of the *porte caustique*. It has not, in general, produced that favourable impression upon those cases, claimed for it by its advocates. Not only does it often fail to cure the patient, but the application of caustic is frequently followed by most serious consequences. In all cases it produces great irritation, frequently strangury and bloody urine, and sometimes severe urethritis and cystitis. Too long contact of the caustic may induce induration and organic stricture, a very serious complication of the case. Notwithstanding these sometimes unfortunate results, some surgeons adhere to it, and a few claim all that Ducamp, or Amussat, or Hunter, or Home, did in former time." In spite of its severity and its very rarely curing, our author adds "We should not, therefore, reject this practice of cauterization entirely."

If spermatorrhœa is simply a functional derangement of the spinal nervous system, as Dr. Bartholow is disposed to believe, should it not be treated by removing the causes and by the use of such means as are invigorating generally rather than by local applications of doubtful efficacy at best, which are often followed by most serious consequences?

The extent of the author's experience or his success in the management of this very distressing affection is not definitely stated. Although no material addition is made to the profession's stock of information on the subject, the work will be found acceptable and useful to those who have not leisure or opportunity to consult many books.

W. S. W. R.

ART. XXVII.—*The Elements of Prognosis in Consumption, with Indications for the Prevention and Treatment.* By JAMES EDWARD POLLOCK, M. D., F. R. C. P., Physician to the Hospital for Consumption and Diseases of the Chest, Brompton, etc. etc. etc. 8vo. pp. 432. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1865.

THIS work is on a very important subject, the prognosis of consumption. All physicians who are really familiar with this disease are aware that it is in many

persons the most prolonged disorder, sometimes not apparently shortening life an hour beyond its natural termination; in other cases it is a most acute and hopeless disease. The fact is, that tubercular disease attacks all animals, the human race less frequently than many other varieties; for example, sheep and monkeys. And it is a matter of importance for us to determine when it is insusceptible of treatment, and when we can modify it almost at our pleasure.

The work of our author is to decide by his observations how far the prognosis of phthisis is susceptible of rules.

Although our author has not added much that is positively new on the subject, still he gives some interesting statements with which we entirely agree.

"Viewing the disease as a whole," he observes, "in which are included all its varieties, it must be evident that the opinions of the older authorities quoted on the character to be assigned to it, were incorrect. Consumption lasts much longer than has been stated by pathologists, or than is believed by the public. Many cases at which we are inclined to smile, which were given up by doctors, but outlived the prediction, to arrive at old age, were undoubted recoveries from phthisis. Many more were instances of an early invasion of the disease with subsidence of the symptoms, and long tolerance of the deposit. When these cases are considered, added to the known instances occurring in the practice of all of us, of tubercle in every stage, including cavity, being resisted and tolerated by persons otherwise healthy, for eight, ten, and even twenty years, we are compelled to acknowledge the undoubted tendency to extreme chronicity which this affection often manifests. It will be remembered how such cautious and skilled observers as Clark and Williams have extended the nominal period of duration to four years, the latter authority attributing the supposed extension of the term of the disease to the use of cod-liver oil. We go a step farther, and maintain that owing to a greater accuracy of diagnosis the revelation of a lengthened duration of consumption formerly suspected, but now certified, has taken place, and that of this fact we can be as secure as of any other observation on the natural history of disease. We believe also that the term of the disease has been extended not only by the use of oil, but by the sensible, non-specific, and supporting treatment which modern practitioners follow, and by the omission of the lowering, antiphlogistic, and depletory measures formerly so common. Especially, bloodletting has been given up, and the pleuritic pains of phthisis, and its frequently recurring hæmoptysis, are no longer bled for. In the face of such facts as we are able to record, we cannot wholly agree with Sir J. Clark, that the greater means of the wealthy, and the possibility of obtaining all comforts and luxuries, have been the chief means of adding to the length of life of the phthisical. Some of our most prolonged cases have been among the outdoor patients of a London hospital; among mechanics, following unhealthy trades, and with but scanty supply of wholesome food, eaten in ill-ventilated and dusty chambers, without possibility of obtaining change of air, or even enough of fresh air! It is doubtless true, that these deprivations are pernicious agents, and that they shorten life in the phthisical and non-phthisical; but we urge that if, in spite of such obstacles to resistance or recovery, consumption is so frequently seen in a prolonged form, the period of its duration as a whole, could it correctly be ascertained in all classes, poor and rich, must be far higher than even the highest estimate which has been made by the boldest or most hopeful investigation. It will be seen from the table that the average *duration while under observation*, of all the cases taken together, was *two years, six months and three-fifths nearly*; but this represents only a part of the period of the affection; and in it are included cases of the most acute and rapid form, as well as those which had become chronic. How much longer did these patients live? (deducting the 129 who died while under treatment) is our question. But who shall reply to it? Figures can do no more, and the results of many years' study of such cases, with unusual opportunities, is so far unsatisfactory that we can state, that out of 3,566 cases only 129 had died at the end of two years and something over six months. Yet, still out of these recorded observations, the fact is evident that, even while the average duration, during the time they were under observation, is so high, a much longer time must be assigned to the greater number of those who were surviving when the last note was recorded. On this

point it is interesting to note the state on leaving hospital; and most careful calculations have been made to elucidate it. On the whole, the condition of these patients has been favourable to the expectation of life, for a considerable time; and although it would be impossible to calculate such expectation with accuracy, or from figures, to derive a conclusion capable of being applied to individual cases of phthisis, yet it is easy to see that the whole average duration of the disease must be raised beyond even the period assigned to it by the observers referred to."—pp. 68–70.

The early stages of phthisis are often much prolonged, and sometimes the symptoms disappear entirely. This is one of the peculiarities noted by our author, and he states with great justice that physicians have often fallen into disrepute by giving an unfavourable prognosis, even when a cavity exists. There is no doubt, according to our observation, that these cases sometimes offer nearly as good probabilities of life as those of healthy people, and it is all-important for physicians to remember that, although, they are called to patients with phthisis and cavities in the lung, yet these do not always mean death, especially not an early one. These patients, if there be not other signs of constitutional irritation, often live many years in tolerable health.

We are glad to find that Dr. Pollock asks attention to the connection of phthisis with fistula in ano. This was one of the favourite themes of the late Dr. Parrish, of this city, but strange to say, even at the present time, we see surgeons actually operating on these cases. That is, doing precisely what is calculated to destroy the patient by drying up a natural and useful discharge, prematurely.

The author's observations on the treatment of phthisis are, in general, judicious and correct. We only wish they contained more new facts. He sums them up in the following words:—

- "1. To promote healthy blood changes.
- "2. To maintain full respiratory action.
- "3. To eliminate morbid matters from the system.
- "4. To supply the largest amount of the most nutritive food which can be digested."

On the whole, we may state that the book gives us a fair account of the prognosis of phthisis, especially in one respect, that if there be not great fever and other marks of constitutional disturbance, we should not look for a speedy termination, but admit that the patient can sometimes recover, and that he very often may enjoy the usual comforts of life.

In one of the latter chapters of the work, the author speaks especially of the causes of fatal consumption. This is particularly true of those whose work confines them to close and hot apartments without exercise.

He speaks of the crowded rooms in which sewing girls work in London, and might have added New York, Philadelphia, and all other large cities. Numbers of these are literally killed, and we may add, that in the United States, many in much more favoured walks of life, are killed by the dry and heated air in which they habitually live.

The author is evidently a sound and reliable practitioner. His remarks on both prognosis and treatment are correct, but we cannot help asking either for a more full and perhaps more conclusive view, or else more positively new facts. Still, we like to hear all the old truisms relative to consumption, again and again repeated, and after a time we trust that we shall obtain a more satisfactory control over it.

W. W. G.

ART. XXVIII.—*Medical Diagnosis with Special Reference to Practical Medicine. A Guide to the Knowledge and Discrimination of Diseases.* By J. M. DA COSTA, M. D., Lecturer on Clinical Medicine and Physician to the Pennsylvania Hospital, &c. &c. Illustrated with engravings on wood. Second edition revised. 8vo. pp. 784. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1866.

IN our number for October, 1864, will be found a review of this work, and we are pleased to find that the favourable opinion there expressed of it has been

confirmed by the profession, as is shown by the call for a new edition within less than two years. The present edition has been revised and about ninety pages of new matter and twenty-two wood-cuts added. The chief additions are in the chapters on diseases of the brain, of the larynx, of the blood, on the urine, and on parasites, and in the section on abdominal enlargement.

We must compliment the publishers on the excellent style in which they have issued the work.

ART. XXIX.—*Notes on Health in Calcutta and British Emigrant Ships, including Ventilation, Diet, and Disease.* By W. H. PEARSE, M.D., Edin., Government Emigration Service. 12mo. pp. 160. London, 1866.

WE scarcely know what to say in relation to these "Notes on Health" by Dr. Pearse, so as to convey to our readers a correct idea of the nature and amount of information to be derived from them, and at the same time to do no injustice to their author. It is very certain that many useful hints are thrown out in respect to ventilation, diet, and water in their hygienic agencies, on board especially of emigrant vessels sailing to and from warm latitudes. The notes so far are expressed in a tolerably intelligible language. But in those devoted to a consideration of the pathology and treatment of the diseases which occur on board of emigrant ships, Dr. Pearse has indulged in a style so strange and obscure that we have found it a very difficult task to make out his real meaning. Indeed we do not feel very certain that we have done so after all our efforts to that effect.

His account of an outbreak of an "epidemic sore throat" on shipboard is a most remarkable specimen of medical description.

He defines scarlatina as follows :—

"Such a phenomenon as scarlatina will be cognizant to the mind as a natural variation of man's state in earlier individual life, at this period of time and nature—that it is not a specific thing, but a continued and natural and necessary variation. That it cannot be a fixed specific 'disease,' because that man himself is a transitional type and existence of matter and life, so the contained variations must be the necessary order of his, at any time, then actual present age."

We will simply quote as a sufficient justification of our criticism of the style of Dr. P. his very dark and scarcely intelligible definition of cholera :—

"I should view the symptoms which we call cholera, as the sequelæ, the natural course, perhaps, towards natural self-restoration; the result, probably, of some momentary—it may be infinitesimal—change antecedently happened."

"Such a hypothetical view, of what we call cholera, may embrace many possible means of production. Cholera may be of the nature of a cycle of change natural, and inherent, and inevitable, in the very composition and nature and relations of the human body, and its whole surroundings and existences, and true parts; it may be, also, or not be infectious, or partake of both these characters, but may yet more than in the body itself, be the result potentially, of some one or more chief change in external physical influences, as of heat, light, magnetism, etc.

"A recognition of the exquisite balance of infinite actions, relations, and parts which matter exhibits, or, rather, which are *of matter and matter of them*, in its course and forms in man, and other living things, and whose rate rather than balance, is not a fixed, but as yet an unexpressed—fixed—progressive one, evolving not perfect life or rate, but a present formative series, *e. g.*, childhood with its necessitous passage into the rate of the eruptive fevers; youth with its power and passions; manhood with its passage to tubercle, cancer, etc.; old age with its cessation of the vital power of matter, in its then existing combinations, etc., opens the view to the vast relations, in extent and time, of man and his deviations, but such are man's senses, mind, and place in the whole series, that he is, by the simple observation of any fact, made cognizant of the whole

series of antecedent relations, these being actually parts of such fact.”—"Thus, then, however immense may be the field which the human body, in the full view of any of its deviations, such as cholera, may present, and however hopeless may be the attempt to travel this whole field, yet cholera is, in its very existence, one and part of the period and 'forms' of all other existences; and hence, the almost—nay, actual—certainty of hope of the presence *at hand to us* of the means, mineral elements, or organic matters, lost or wanting, in the evolving rate or stream of life or death—in the compounds of matter of which the animal frame is composed."

D. F. C.

ART. XXX.—*Atlas of Surgical and Topographical Anatomy*. By B. J. BÉRAUD, Surgeon and Professor to the Maternity Hospital of Paris, Ex Prosector and Assistant Anatomist to the Faculty of Medicine of Paris, etc. etc. Illustrated by one hundred Plates drawn from Nature, by M. Bion. Translated by Robert Thomas Hulme, M. R. C. S., Eng. Parts 1, 2, and 3, Royal 8vo. London: H. Baillière, 1866.

THIS work is intended to illustrate the surgical and regional anatomy of the human body; and is to be completed in ten monthly parts, each part containing ten plates with descriptive text. The first three parts, which we have received, contain thirty plates devoted to the several regions of the head and neck.

The drawings, and the engraving of the plates are extremely well executed, the several parts are represented with unusual distinctness, and the colouring is most artistic. Besides the explanatory text there is given with each figure a brief notice of the relations of the region to pathology and operative surgery.

We can strongly recommend this work for its accuracy, convenient size, and beauty of execution to both students and practitioners. When the complete work is received we shall be able to give a fuller notice of it.

ART. XXXI.—*A Practical Treatise on the Diseases of the Testis and of the Spermatic Cord and Scrotum*. By T. B. CURLING, F.R.S., Surgeon to the London Hospital, &c. With numerous wood engravings. Third Edition. Revised and enlarged. 8vo. pp. 609. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1866.

TEN years have elapsed since the publication of the second edition of Mr. Curling's classical treatise, during which the author has enjoyed extensive opportunities of improving his knowledge of the diseases of the testicle and its appendages, and the fruits of this experience are incorporated in the present edition. Not only has the whole work been thoroughly revised and additions made to most of the chapters, but the subjects of inguinal hydrocele, sterility, and congenital vascular tumours of the scrotum, are introduced and ably discussed.

Inguinal hydrocele and congenital vascular tumours of the scrotum are briefly treated, but much valuable and instructive information in regard to them is furnished.

Sterility in the male, a subject rarely treated of, Mr. C. discusses with great ability. It is usually confounded with impotence; recent researches, however, have shown that a want of aptitude to impregnate may co-exist with the capacity for sexual intercourse; or, in other words, that man is subject to *sterility* independent of *impotency*. Sterility arises, according to Mr. C., from the following causes: 1. Malposition of the testicles. 2. Obstruction in the excretory ducts of the testicle. 3. Impediments to the escape of the seminal fluid. 4. Aspermatismus, or non-ejaculation.

Mr. Curling's observations on spermatorrhœa are very instructive and sensible.

Our experience has long since convinced us that in many cases the affection is in great part the result of mental disturbance caused by reading treatises on the subject, or by alarm created by the misrepresentations of charlatans who have found this a most profitable field, and they have cultivated it without remorse for the wretchedness and despondency, sometimes even tending to suicide, which they thereby inflict on their victims. We are sustained in this view by the high authority of Mr. Curling, who says :—

“ In a great proportion of the cases which come under notice in practice, the complaint [spermatorrhœa] is extremely slight, or more mental than real. The ability to perform well the duties of the sex is a matter of such concern to most men that it is not surprising that timid or weak persons, misled by artful advertisements and empirical works, should sometimes be troubled with unfounded fears, and fancy that they are incompetent and labouring under spermatorrhœa when no such disorder exists. The minds of these persons are usually more or less unhinged by dyspepsia, and the discharges natural in health are regarded as morbid. They are reminded, in the writings alluded to, of having once practised the foolish habit common in schools and too little restrained by teachers, but which have been long abandoned, and have left no permanent ill effects. I have met, indeed, with men, even of great intelligence, who have been so impressed with the conviction of being seriously affected with spermatorrhœa, or who have been so unhappy in consequence, without any real cause, that their condition has amounted almost to monomania. Care is required in dealing with these cases. Medical men are too apt to treat the complaints of such patients lightly, making no efforts to allay their anxieties; a course which often leads them to apply for aid in illegitimate quarters, and to become the victims of unprincipled men. The surgeon should endeavour to obtain the patient's confidence, and whilst paying due attention to his general health, should strive to convince him of the groundless nature of his fears, and of the unimportant nature of his local complaint.”

ART. XXXII.—*A Guide to the Practical Study of the Diseases of the Eye; with an Outline of their Medical and Operative Treatment.* By JAMES DIXON, F. R. C. S., Surgeon to the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital, Moorfields. From the third London edition. 12mo. pp. 400. Phila.: Lindsay & Blakiston, 1866.

IN our number for Oct. 1860, we have expressed our estimate of this useful and reliable guide to those commencing the study of eye diseases. Though somewhat limited in its scope, all the subjects embraced in it are discussed sensibly, and the therapeutical directions are marked by calm and sound judgment.

In the present edition the author has not restricted himself to a revision of his former one, but a considerable portion has been rewritten, and the remainder rearranged and corrected. These changes have considerably added to the value of the work.

QUARTERLY SUMMARY

OF THE

IMPROVEMENTS AND DISCOVERIES

IN THE

MEDICAL SCIENCES.

ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY.

1. *Existence in the Tissues of Animals of a Substance closely resembling Quinia.*—Dr. HENRY BENGE JONES, in a lecture delivered March 23d, 1866, before the Royal Institution of Great Britain, announced his discovery everywhere in the tissues of animals, of a substance closely resembling quinia. He has proved it to exist in living as well as in dead tissues. He terms it animal quinoidine. We have not space for the details of his experiments, which are published in the *Medical Times and Gaz.*, Aug. 18th, 1866, but we may say that they appear to have been conducted with care and devised with great ingenuity. Dr. Jones has also shown that when sulphate of quinia is given to animals it rapidly passes from the blood into all the tissues, even into the crystalline lens.

"Thus, then," he says, "the quinia goes everywhere; and wherever it goes it meets with the natural fluorescent substance like quinine which most probably is constantly forming and undergoing oxidation. The incoming quinine causes a temporary excess of quinine in the textures. Probably it causes a stoppage of the fresh formation of quinine from albumen; a temporary arrest of the changes going on; a transfer of action probably to the quinine introduced, so that with large doses deafness and great prostration and almost imperceptible pulse are produced in man, whilst in guinea-pigs death even is caused by the extreme prostration. In small doses, quinine, probably like alcohol, gives an immediate stimulus when the first chemical action takes place; but soon the quinine retards the chemical changes in the nitrogenous substances, just as alcohol, by its secondary action, retards the chemical changes in the hydrocarbons in the different textures.

"Possibly the increased resistance to changes in the textures and in the blood produced by excessive doses of quinine or alcohol, is analogous to that state well known to medical men under the very indefinite and probably incorrect name of uræmia.

"From these experiments two hopeful prospects of possible discovery arise—1st, as to the explanation of the cause and cure of ague; 2d, as to the treatment of diseases in parts of the body external to the bloodvessels.

"1. Assume that a substance like quinine exists, during health, in the textures, can its rapid destruction and removal through the action of marsh miasm give rise to ague? Does quinine cure ague by furnishing a substance which retards the changes which go on in the textures? and in the well-known property of arsenic to preserve organic substances have we also the explanation of its power in curing ague?

"2. If the chemical circulation can carry alkaloids even into the non-vascular tissues, is it not reasonable to suppose that medicines pass through the blood and act on the textures; and is it not most probable that they take part in

every chemical change that occurs outside the bloodvessels, as well as in the blood itself? Still further, may we not expect that among the multitude of new substances which synthetical chemistry is now constantly forming, some medicines may be discovered which may not only have power to control the excessive chemical changes of the textures in fevers and inflammations, but may be able to remove the products of insufficient chemical action even in those diseases which affect the non-vascular textures, as, for example, in cataract and in gout?"

2. *On the Heat of Fluidity, or Latent Heat of Animal Bodies.*—Dr. B. W. RICHARDSON gave to the British Medical Association, at its late meeting, a brief description of his recent original researches on this subject. These researches were entirely new, and opened up a wide field of thought in the science and practice of medicine. The author had been led to them by the observation that when a part of the body was frozen, at the moment of freezing there was always a rise in temperature, indicating the evolution of heat previously insensible. This fact led him to determine the heat of fluidity of blood, fat, albumen, gelatine, brain matter, blood-corpuscles, and other structures. Having briefly entered into details on these points, the author illustrated his subject by referring to various physiological phenomena, dwelling particularly on the function of the blood-corpuscles. These, he said, played a part previously unrecognized. They were the bearers of heat by rendering heat liberated in the pulmonic circuit latent, and conveying it to the tissues to be there redelivered in the process of condensation. Fatty substances, in like manner, rendered heat latent in the pulmonic circuit, and conveyed it to the extreme parts.

In a paper published in the *Med. Times and Gazette*, Aug. 4, we find some further details of Dr. Richardson's researches. He states "that each part of the body that has the property of being transferred from the solid to the liquid, and conversely from the liquid to the solid condition, possesses a given capacity for latent heat, or heat of fluidity, and that the process by which the body is heated from the combustion going on in the lungs is mainly carried on by the agency of heat rendered latent. Thus fatty matter taken in the liquid form into the stomach, and conveyed unconsumed into the extreme parts of the circulation, in being deposited there yields up an equivalent of not less than 162° of heat. Thus water, which, as the grand menstruum of the solids, must be protected by the saline substances and the albumen that it cannot be solidified even locally at any temperature above 16° Fahrenheit. Thus, and lastly for the present occasion, by their capacity for taking up the heat of fluidity and for yielding that heat up again, the blood-corpuscles become the great carriers of that caloric of the body by which all the soft parts hold and maintain their mobility and physical activity.

"But in order that the blood-corpuscles should be subjected to the influence of living combustion in the lungs, they must be brought over the pulmonic circuit in proper mechanical suspension—in other words, in a state of proper distribution; and this obtains so long as they are borne in the fibrin of the liquor sanguinis, the fibrin itself being diffused equally through the homogeneous fluid of water, saline matter, and albumen, which we call serum. The moment, therefore, there is separation of water from albumen, the moment the balance of water, albumen, fibrin, and blood-corpuscles is disturbed by the separation and abstraction of water, that moment the blood-corpuscles cease to be brought correctly to the lungs to fix caloric. As a result, there is a reduction in the amount of the caloric of fluidity that should be conveyed to the tissues, and then every ounce of water, beyond what is natural, that is conveyed from the organism carries away so much caloric at the expense of so much tissue. In fact, if it were not for the capacity of the water to abstract caloric from the tissues so as to maintain its own fluidity, the water of the tissues of the cholera patient would fall so rapidly that death would almost be instantaneous on the destruction of the homogeneity of the blood."

3. *A System of Perivascular Canals in the Central Nervous Organs.*—The last number of the *Archives des Sciences* contains a notice of Herr His's dis-

covery of a peculiar series of channels which traverse the central nervous masses. He first detected them in a number of sections of the spinal cord, in which they were represented by grooves which he looked upon as opened channels. They are more distinct in the gray than in the white substance. Each groove incloses a bloodvessel, which either lies freely within it or is attached to its walls. They are abundant enough in the brain, and this circumstance explains how one is enabled to remove whole vascular networks with the forceps from the surface of the cerebrum. Herr His's injections of these spaces show the perivascular canals to lie between the nervous substance and the pia mater. He concludes that the spaces are connected with the lymphatic system, and thinks them analogous to those reservoirs which in the frog are placed between the integument and the muscles, and which almost completely separate one from the other.—*Lancet*, June 9, 1866.

4. *Termination of the Motor Nerves in the Muscles.*—The views of Dr. Beale, relative to the termination of the nerves in the muscular tissue have been pretty generally accepted in Great Britain. Most British microscopists hold with the King's College Professor in believing that the nerves have no decided termination in the muscles, but that their ultimate fibres unite in forming a network of extreme delicacy. Abroad, however, this view has met with some opposition, and especially from MM. Kuhne and Rouget, the latter of whom has just presented a memoir to the Academy of Sciences upon the above subject. M. Rouget states that the nerve-fibre ends in a sort of terminal *plate* or disk; and in answer to Dr. Beale's denial of such a mode of termination he writes: "I shall only reply, that all other observers who have devoted themselves to this subject, MM. Krause, Kühne, Waldeyer, Engelmann, and Letzerich, and still more recently, MM. Conheim and Vulpian, have all admitted the existence of the terminal plate, and its entire independence of any nervous network." M. Rouget laid before the members of the Academy some photographs of microscopic preparations of tissue, which he said demonstrated the following conclusions: (1) The terminal division of the *axis cylinder* of the motor nerve-fibre constitutes by anastomosis and fusion a terminal expansion of finely granular substance identical with that of the terminal filaments of the corpuscles of Pacini, of the ultimate nervous lamina of electric plates of fishes, &c., and in immediate contact with the contractile substance of the primitive bundle. (2) This nervous expansion is traversed in every direction by minute canals, establishing a connection between the numerous nuclei of the *plate*, and communicating probably, on the one hand, with the space intermediate between the sarcolemma and the contractile fibrillæ, and on the other hand, with the interstice between the matrix of the nervous tube and the medullary layer—an arrangement which is doubtless related to the special action of certain poisonous substances upon the terminal extremity of the motor nerves of animal life. M. Rouget's paper will be found in the *Comptes Rendus*, June 25th.—*Lancet*, July 21, 1866.

5. *Vessels and Nerves of the Ligaments and Fibro-Cartilages.*—M. SAPPEY, in a memoir presented to the Imperial Academy of Sciences, describes the vascular and nervous parts of the ligaments and cartilages. He says of the inter-articular cartilages, those of the knee are the most abundantly supplied with nerves and vessels. The vessels run at first nearly parallel with the connective-tissue fibres; but soon they divide and subdivide and anastomose, so as to form the most exquisite reticulations, which terminate in elegant festoons. The veins follow the course of the arteries. In the fibro-cartilages of the joints the vessels pass from the periphery towards the centre; but they penetrate only to a depth of three or four millimetres. The periarticular fibro-cartilages, or *bursæ*, are still more vascular. Both these sets of tissues receive numerous nerves, which sometimes lie with the vessels, and at others pursue an independent course. The ligaments are also well supplied with vessels and nerves, especially the latter, which are more numerous than those of the skin. In the tendons the supply of nerves and vessels is less marked. As regards their nervous and vascular supplies, the tissues described in M. Sappey's memoir follow this order: (1) The

ligaments and periarticular fibro-cartilages; (2) the tendons and aponeuroses; and (3) the interarticular fibro-cartilages.—*Lancet*, July 7, 1866.

6. *Myograph*.—M. MAREY, the inventor of the sphygmograph, has devised a new instrument which he names the myograph, for determining the vibrations of muscular fibres. It is employed only in connection with the muscles of animal life, and it records graphically the vibrations of these just as the sphygmograph records pulsations. The vibrations of the fibres of muscles have already been determined by Houghton, Helmholtz, and others; but M. Marey has gone further, and, by introducing the method of autographic registration, has shown the exact nature of the influence of fatigue and disease (muscular and nervous) over these vibrations. The myograph consists of a sort of forceps, which embrace the limb experimented on, and one of whose arms rests upon the muscle whose vibrations are to be determined. This is the only movable limb of the forceps, and it is, therefore, thrown into vibrations during the contraction of the muscle. The forceps are connected with the wire of a galvanic battery, and by this means the muscle is at pleasure thrown into action. The remainder of the myograph is upon the plan of the sphygmograph, and comprises a system of levers and drums, on which the register of the vibrations is traced.—*Lancet*, July 7, 1866.

7. *Influence of Water in the Production of Milk*.—The recent experiments of M. DAMOISEAU and others, show that the abundant secretion of milk is directly dependent on the abundant ingestion of water. In former researches, which tended to prove the opposite conclusion, there was not sufficient allowance made for the quantity of water contained in the food given to the cows upon which the experiments were conducted.—*Lancet*, June 9, 1866.

8. *Structure of the Crystalline Lens*.—A very valuable paper has been published by HERR VON BECKER in the *Archiv für Ophthalmologie* on the subject of the structure of the crystalline lens. The eyes he investigated were those of the calf. They were prepared by maceration for a few hours in a solution of sulphuric acid (five drops to the ounce of distilled water). The capsule of the lens, he says, at first appears to be perfectly homogeneous, but when it is examined with a sufficiently high power, it exhibits striæ that indicate a lamellar structure, which is still more marked when the capsule has undergone morbid thickening. The anterior capsule is decidedly thicker than the other. In fish and in amphibia there is less difference between the two capsules in this respect than in mammalia and birds. The difference increases with age. In a man of seventy-two years it amounted to 0.047 millimetres. The inner surface of the thickened portion of the capsule is clothed with a layer of cells, which is not epithelial only, but is in some measure composed of small rounded cells. The fibres of the lens are thus developed: The small rounded cells of the capsule arrange themselves in groups of from two to six; their nuclei increase in size, assume a linear direction, and finally the cells themselves unite, and form cylinders of a concave and jointed appearance at the surface of the lens. The development goes on actively even at birth. Numerous spaces exist between the fibres, to which Herr Becker gives the name of *interfibrillary spaces*, and asks, do they exist during life?—*Lancet*, June 9, 1866.

MATERIA MEDICA AND PHARMACY.

9. *Action of the Bromide of Potassium upon the Nervous System*.—Dr. J. CRICHTON BROWNE has subjected forty-three patients suffering from various affections of the nervous system to the action of the bromide of potassium, and from watching its effects on these patients and comparing them with the recorded experience of others, he has become convinced of its high value. He has been

led to the conclusion that the bromide acts directly as a sedative to the medulla oblongata, soothing and moderating its functions wherever these are in excess of the normal standard. This sedative influence he believes to embrace alike the impressibility and motor excitability of the organ. The medicine has been given in doses of from ten to forty grains twice or thrice a day, after meals or upon an empty stomach. The most useful results have occurred under doses of twenty to twenty-five grains twice a day.

The actions of the bromide of potassium, according to Dr. Browne, are:—

1. It mitigates those convulsive movements or spasmodic twitchings, which are the result of the rapid conversion of sensory impressions into motor impulses, or of morbid reflex action through the medulla oblongata, and it exercises a peculiar influence over the phenomena which are characteristic of epilepsy. Whether the increased excitability of the medulla oblongata is so great as to be productive of epilepsy, or so slight as to extend itself in minor spasmodic complaints, the bromide seems to exert an excellent effect on it.

2. It has a sedative effect upon the action of the heart in certain cases.

3. It lessens and mitigates that rapid and preternatural excitement of spasm, tremor, and other outward manifestations which in some forms of nervous disease follow upon any emotional or moral disturbance.

4. It acts as an anodyne, under certain circumstances relieving hyperæsthetical sensations.

5. It promotes sleep.

6. It exercises a sedative influence over the sexual functions.

7. It exercises a beneficial influence over certain mental diseases.

"Without minutely considering here," says Dr. B., "the uses of the bromide of potassium in the treatment of insanity, I may mention that I have seen it of signal service in orectic and thymic derangements. I believe I have seen it moderate excessive manifestations of the instincts, and appetites, and afford assistance in subjugating degraded and vicious impulses and propensities. I have certainly seen it efficacious in alleviating melancholia, simple, suicidal, akinetic, hypochondriacal, sexual, emotional, etc. It is in these forms of insanity enumerated that I anticipate that it will be of most utility.

10. *Physiological Action of Narceine*.—In a late No. of the *Journal de Chimie Médicale* there is an abstract of M. LINNÉ's researches on the above subject, from which we perceive that the following conclusions have been arrived at: (1) Narceine is unquestionably of all the alkaloids of opium that which has the greatest narcotic power. *In the majority of cases* morphia and codeia do not produce as sound or as prolonged sleep as results from the use of narceine. (2) Narceine differs from the other alkaloids of opium in producing little perspiration, and in causing no loss of appetite or nausea. (3) So far from producing constipation of bowels, it causes relaxation, and, in large doses, actually gives rise to diarrhœa. (4) It not only produces sleep, but diminishes pain. (5) It has one peculiar action: it suppresses the flow of urine. For this reason M. Linné thinks it might be advantageously employed in cases of nocturnal incontinence of urine amongst children. But it seems to us that, until its action can be shown to be on the bladder rather than on the kidneys, its employment in such cases would be highly improper.—*Lancet*, June 9, 1866.

11. *Therapeutic Uses of Oxygen*.—M. DEMARQUAY, who has devoted much attention to the use of oxygen inhalation in medicine, says, in speaking of its therapeutic indications, that, in the early stage of phthisis, when there is no fever, and no fear of exciting local action, when the patient is becoming emaciated, and the emaciation is increased by persistent dyspepsia, oxygen may have a salutary influence in modifying the state of the constitution and sustaining the organism. Asthenia is the disease in which oxygen has been given by preference; of twenty-two patients treated by Beddoes, ten were cured, and nine relieved. But the employment of oxygen in asthenia meets with numerous contraindications. Oxygen renders incontestable service in essential anæmia. It is specially indicated in that form of chlorosis of young girls which is characterized by obstinate anorexia; in the anæmia of convalescents, and in the

anæmia, often severe, of newly-delivered females. The inhalation of oxygen is also successful in anæmia arising from hemorrhage or from fatigue, and is also a very energetic remedy in the debility produced by prolonged suppuration; it stimulates the appetite, sustains the powers of the patient, and enables him to attain to recovery. In diabetes, under the influence of oxygen inhalation, the quantity of sugar contained in the urine is remarkably diminished. In surgery, oxygen stimulates weak and ill conditioned ulcers, and accelerates the production of granulations in cicatrizing wounds. In senile gangrene, as long as the circulation continues in the artery of the foot, oxygen is, according to the observations of MM. Laugier, Demarquay, and Maurice Reynaud, the only remedy which in advanced cases affords a chance of recovery.—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, May 19, 1866, from *Gaz. Méd. de Paris*, 14 April, 1866.

12. *Mudar, a Substitute for Ipecacuanha in the Treatment of Dysentery.*—Mr. J. J. DURANT states (*Indian Med. Gazette*, May, 1866), that he has found the powder of the bark of the root of mudar (*Calotropis gigantea*) an excellent substitute for ipecacuanha in the treatment of dysentery amongst the native population. In every acute case in which he prescribed mudar it either effected a complete cure in a few days, or at once changed the character of the disease from bloody and mucous to bilious diarrhœa. He administers it in similar doses to what are usually given of ipecacuanha, never beginning with less than one scruple, and seldom going beyond one drachm. He usually gives it alone, but when a weak stomach is suspected in the patient he combines it with carbonate of soda, creasote, bismuth, prussic acid, &c. Like ipecacuanha, mudar, in large doses, is a reliable cholagogue; it is also a sedative to the muscular fibres of the intestines, particularly of the rectum and colon, rapidly allaying all pain, tenesmus, and irritation, and putting a stop to dysenteric action. Its most marked effect is the production of a copious flow of bile, which follows its use in about twenty-four hours.

13. *Wheat Phosphates.*—Dr. TILBURY FOX justly states that “the various forms of infant’s food are, in the great majority of instances simply and purely starch, the central portions of the cereals consisting entirely of the latter product; these foods do not deserve the name of, and are not flours; to call them flours is nothing more or less than fraud. Now, inasmuch as the starchy element is not the assimilative nor the flesh forming, but the heat and fat producing principle, all our past efforts in securing a nice white flour have been antagonistic to the possession of nutritive material, and actually the very desirable part of the grain contained in the bran—viz., the organized phosphates and other principles, have been deliberately rejected. Seconds flour makes a much more wholesome bread than that of the first quality.”

The importance of a due supply of phosphates in health and disease has been recognized, and Dr. Fox’s experience teaches him that there is something essentially special in the organized phosphates—those, in fact, which have been formed by passing through a living organism (in nature’s own laboratory)—as compared with artificially prepared phosphates. It is not the amount, but the kind exhibited that produces the good result. No simple mixture is in any way a substitute. It is not at all unlikely that the cerealin, of which little is known, but which is associated with the phosphates in the bran, and has an action similar to pepsin, may conduce to the beneficial result.

The organized phosphates aid the assimilative function and promote digestion.

The mode of preparing them as given by Dr. Fox is “to make a decoction of well-selected bran, carefully evaporate in a water bath, mix the residue with sugar, and reduce to powder. It may be used in the place of sugar, a teaspoonful or less being added two or three times a-day to the child’s food. The cases in which its use is chiefly indicated are those amongst the young, in whom the assimilative function is at fault. I can speak very strongly in cases which belong to my own particular specialty—diseases of the skin. Eruptive diseases of the scalp in infants are most frequently associated with faulty assimilation. Here the wheat phosphates act marvellously well. But in rickets, in marasmus, chronic diarrhœa, and impaired nutrition of all kinds, I believe them to be most

invaluable adjuncts. Pallid children pick up tone, colour, and flesh; worms disappear; intestinal irritation subsides; the secretions become healthy; and disease goes. I lay great stress on the phosphates under notice in their character as *organized products* as greatly helping assimilation of food and medicinal agents, and believe them to be the most preferable form of phosphates, especially for the young."—*Med. Times and Gaz.*, March 17, 1866.

14. *Port Royal Senna*.—In the Pharmaceutical Society, the Chairman called the attention of the meeting to a specimen of *Port Royal Senna*, brought to England by Dr. Bowerbank; and Dr. Tilbury Fox stated that Dr. Bowerbank had used the senna in his practice for thirty years, and found it preferable to East Indian and Alexandrian sennas. It was less disagreeable to the palate, excited no nausea, and produced no griping. The infusion tasted something like tea, and children drank it readily. Professor Bentley said that the specimen consisted of leaves of *Cassia obovata*, a cultivated variety of the plant, which was originally introduced from Africa. It was mentioned by several writers on West Indian plants, under the names of Italian senna and Cassia Portugalia. It was said by Sloane to produce much griping. He believed that it was less active than East Indian and Alexandrian senna. Mr. Cook stated that the plant grew wild in the hedges of the West Indies.—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, March 31, from *Chemical News*.

15. *Use and Abuse of Poultices*.—In his lectures recently delivered at the College of Physicians, Dr. RICHARDSON made the following remarks on the subject of poultices:—

The application of moist heat in the form of poultice to suppurating parts requires, I think, remodelling, in order that it may be placed on a true scientific basis. I am afraid that the common recommendation, "You must put on a poultice," is too often among us all an easy way of doing something about which we are not quite sure, and concerning which it were too much trouble to think long. From what I have recently observed, I fear that mischief is often done by a poultice, which might well be avoided. The people have always a view, that a poultice is applied to "draw," as they say—a term in truth which, though very unsophisticated, is in a sense a good term, for it means what it says. The question for us, is, whether it be sound practice to carry out as a general rule the "drawing" process, either by fomentation or by poultice.

When a part is disposed to suppurate, the first step in the series of changes is an increased flow of blood through the capillary surface, followed by obstruction, and thereupon by an excess of sensible heat derived from the friction that is set up. Then follows transudation of liquor sanguinis into the connective tissue, and its transformation, under the influence of heat, into what is called purulent fluid. When to the part in this state we apply moist heat, we quicken suppuration; mainly by upholding the temperature: at the same time, we secure the transference of water from the moist surface into the fluids of the inflamed part, by which tension of tissues is produced, and in the end yielding of tissue at the weakest point.

When the suppurating surface is circumscribed, the rapid induction of the process may be attended with little injury; but when the surface is large and when the exuded fluid is thrown into loose structures where it can burrow readily, the practice, I think, cannot be good to extend the mischief. Hence, in the treatment of carbuncle and phlegmonous erysipelas, it cannot, I opine, be sound practice in the early stage to apply moist heat. Experience also, not less than principle, warrants this conclusion. In cases of carbuncle especially, I have of late altogether avoided the application of moist heat in the early stages; and, I feel assured, with good results.

But when, in the course of local disease, suppuration is actively established, and is naturally circumscribed; when the increased temperature of the part has fallen to or below the natural temperature—then the value of moist heat comes on with full force; then the tension which is exerted determines the escape of fluid at the weakest point of the surrounding tissue, and, when the fluid escapes

or is liberated by the knife, the escape for a long period is aided by the application of moist heat.

The continued application of moist heat for a long time after the escape of purulent fluid is again, I conceive, indifferent practice. It sustains discharge; it sets up unhealthy decomposition of fluids; it produces a thickened soddened condition of skin, most favourable to the production of sinus; and it retards recovery. When a surface is freely open, and suppurating, dry and not moist heat is the remedy. We are in want in these cases of a simple invention; we require something which we can apply as readily as a poultice which shall keep up the temperature of the part, and at the same time take up moisture, and gently desiccate, without injuring the tissues.—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, May 12, 1866.

MEDICAL PATHOLOGY AND THERAPEUTICS, AND PRACTICAL MEDICINE.

16. *Microscopical Researches on Cholera*.—The most important recent contribution to the pathology of cholera is the series of observations upon the morbid changes which have occurred in cholera made with the aid of the highest powers and new methods of investigation by Dr. L. S. BEALE. This eminent physiologist and skilful microscopist has entered upon this inquiry, he states, as a scientific observer who has neither formed nor adopted any views concerning the nature or treatment of the disease.

"In this inquiry," he says, "it seems to me desirable to start from the alimentary canal. Every one who has seen cholera has been struck by the remarkable characters of the matter discharged from the intestinal tube, and those who have made post-mortems are familiar with the fact that the small intestines almost always contain a considerable quantity of pale, almost colourless gruel, rice, or cream-like matter. This has been proved to consist almost entirely of columnar epithelium, and in many cases large flakes can be found, consisting of several uninjured epithelial sheaths of the villi. I have often found such sheaths in the stools in previous epidemics, and probably every one who has carefully observed the disease will have inclined towards the opinion that in bad cases it is probable that almost every villus, from the pylorus to the ileo-cæcal valve, has been stripped of its epithelial coating during life.

The alteration in the apparatus concerned in the absorption of all nutrient matters from the intestinal canal, and the changes accompanying it and preceding it, are probably sufficient to account for death by collapse. Most important, therefore, it is to ascertain, if possible, the several phenomena of which this denudation of epithelium is the climax, and the order in which they occur. These important organs, the villi, are, in a very bad case, all, or nearly all, left bare, and a very essential part of what constitutes the absorbing apparatus is completely destroyed. If only a considerable portion of a villus was denuded, reparation might doubtless occur by new growth from the cells which remained, but if the villus was entirely stripped, it is more probable that it would waste, and its place be at length occupied by a new one, which would grow from its base, than that epithelium would grow anew from its bare surface. It is probable that the extent of this process of denudation determines the severity or mildness of the attack. If the great majority of the villi have suffered, it is scarcely reasonable to consider recovery more probable than it would be after a very extensive burn or scald. We shall have to inquire what is the proximate cause of the denuding process? Why does the epithelium drop off? What circumstances cause it to become detached? The process may be due to violent contraction of the muscular fibres of the villi and the retraction of the villus within its sheath; but although, no doubt, contraction occurs, it is scarcely probable that the villi would be so generally and completely stripped as they are in severe cases. It seems more probable that the epithelium may become detached in consequence of the almost complete cessation of the circulation in

the capillaries beneath, but the death of the cells may occur in consequence of their being exposed to the influence of certain matters in the intestine or in the blood, in which case they would simply fall off. These and many more hypotheses will have to be considered in the hope of finding the true explanation of the fact.

It ought not, I think, to be too hastily concluded that this abundant removal of epithelium is an indication of the occurrence of active *elimination* from the intestinal surface. For, in the first place, it must be remembered that the villi are not, in their normal state, organs of *secretion* or *elimination*, but active organs of *absorption*; while, on the other hand, Lieberkuhn's follicles, which open in the intervals between the bases of the villi, are secreting organs. Now these follicles, so far from being denuded, are choked with epithelium. It is possible, however, that there may have been a tendency upon the part of these cells to separate matter from the blood, but it seems improbable that the columnar cells which form the bulk of the cellular elements of the contents of the small intestine, and which unquestionably came from the villi, should have been engaged in such an office. Secondly, I would remark that the pabulum passes through the columnar cell in a direction *from* its free towards its attached surface, or *from the intestine towards the blood*. If, therefore, it eliminates or separates anything from the blood, the flow must take place through it in a direction the very opposite of that which is constant during its life. Is it not improbable that this should be the case? In short, it seems to me that evidence in favour of the view that the removal of the epithelium from the villi is an eliminative act is still wanting. By the denudation a raw surface becomes exposed, just as in the case of the cutaneous surface after a burn or scald, except that the villi are completely bared, which is not the case with the skin. No one would argue that the elevation of the superficial layers of the cuticle and the effusion of serum beneath consequent upon a burn resulted from elimination. We are to some extent acquainted with the several steps of the latter process, but we have not as yet learned much concerning the former.

The removal of the columnar epithelium from the villi, and the consequent destruction of the mechanism connected with absorption, are broad facts in cholera which deserve the most minute and careful study. We might well consider how this denudation may be prevented or retarded, and, having taken place, what fluids should be brought in contact with the naked surface—oily fluids, fluids containing salt syrup or glycerine, so as to make them of about the specific gravity of the serum, or ordinary serum itself, which last would probably be most efficacious—or whether it would not be better, until we know more of the matter, to let the denuded villi remain perfectly quiet, and allow the small intestine to rest, in the hope that the damage may be repaired. But is it not reasonable to hope that a thoroughly minute investigation into the circumstances which probably immediately precede this denudation of epithelium would enable us to form a notion of its nature, and to adopt means which were likely to restrain it? A knowledge of the changes occurring after the denudation and destruction of many villi will probably teach us much concerning the nature of "secondary fever," and enable us to place the patient under conditions most favourable to his recovery. The consideration of the mere fact of there being a raw denuded surface throughout a considerable extent of the alimentary canal suggests the propriety of not introducing anything into the intestines. The question concerning the alteration in the villi is a most interesting one, and it is worth while to spend time in searching for new facts, and in trying new experiments which may help us to answer it. But the subject is a very extensive one, and has many ramifications, each of which must be carefully considered in detail.

Remarkable changes have occurred in the smaller vessels, especially in the capillaries and small veins of the villi and submucous tissue, and these changes can be readily demonstrated. The blood-corpuscles appear to have in great measure been destroyed in the smaller vessels, and in their place are seen clots containing blood-colouring matter, minute granules, and small masses of germinal matter evidently undergoing active multiplication, but the nature of which has yet to be studied. Some of the arteries are contracted, but here and there

small clots destitute of blood-corpuscles may be seen at intervals. Drawings of these will be published.

On the other hand, the nerves and the ganglia, so numerous between the muscular and mucous coats of the small intestine, exhibit a natural appearance, so that I should not be able to distinguish a ganglion taken from a cholera victim from one taken from a perfectly healthy person of the same age whose life was destroyed by accident. The nerves and ganglia, and the tissues for a short distance around the smaller vessels, are, in many situations, stained with altered and dissolved blood-colouring matter."—*Med. Times and Gaz.*, Aug. 4, 1866.

In a second article (*Med. Times and Gazette*, Aug. 18th), Dr. BEALE states that the columnar epithelial cells found in great number in the rice-water evacuations and small intestine after death from cholera, do not always exhibit the same characters, nor are they of the same size in every case.

He adds: "In almost all the cases of cholera I have yet examined there is evidence of chronic structural changes in the *tissues* of the intestines, and I think we shall be led to conclude that in most of the cholera victims important morbid alterations have been going on for months, and in some instances for years, before death. In some cases it is probable that, had the individual escaped cholera, he must have succumbed to some other malady within a short period of time. The columnar epithelial cells often exhibit evidence of chronic change; they seem to be stunted, and in many instances the nuclei are much smaller than in health. In the intervals between their attached extremities one fails to find those smaller and younger cells which in the healthy state gradually grow up to take the place of those cells which are removed and give origin to new cells, which in their turn become developed. So also it is to be observed that the masses of germinal matter so numerous near the surface of the healthy villus are almost absent in many of these cases of cholera. And there are other and very striking changes in the structure of the affected villi which I shall describe fully in other communications."

In one case, that of a child fifteen months old, Dr. B. found the epithelial sheaths of the villi very distinct and perfect, but the cells did not exhibit the characters seen in other cases. "They contained numerous oil-globules, some of which were of considerable size—a fact which perhaps justifies the inference that these particular cells were active and concerned in absorption shortly before death, which certainly is not usually the case in cholera. The above inference is confirmed by the characters of the villi existing in this particular instance. In most cases the fresh cells seem to be almost destitute of oil-globules, and many present a shrivelled appearance, as if they had not been very active for a long time before death. There seems, indeed, to be the same sort of difference between some of these cells in cholera and healthy columnar epithelial cells, that is observed between the epithelium of a cirrhone and that of a healthy liver or kidney." * * *

"Amongst the epithelial cells and upon their surfaces, if not in their substance, are multitudes of bacteria. Bacteria are found in the dejections during life, in the vomit, and in every part of the alimentary canal two hours after death.

"It is probable that these organisms are developed in the intestine in vast numbers during life." * * *

"The falling off of the epithelial cells cannot be attributed to the influence of cholera, nor is it probable that these organisms are concerned in the production of cholera. Bacteria are found often enough in undigested or in imperfectly digested food. In dyspeptic infants they occur in vast numbers in every part of the alimentary canal; and in temporary stomach derangement the matters rejected by the stomach or passed per anum contain them in enormous quantity. They have been observed by Dr. Gibb even in milk immediately it was removed from the breast of the mother, and must have been developed while the milk yet remained in the mammary gland. They are always present in the fluids of the mouth, and are not uncommon in the contents of the stomach, though it is doubtful if they multiply in a perfectly healthy condition of the gastric mucous membrane. It is not very surprising that bacteria should be present in the cells of columnar epithelium in certain cases, seeing that their germs are always present in the old cells of squamous epithelium in the mouth.

They invade these columnar cells from without, and live at their expense, just as they invade the epithelial cells of the tongue, and as simple fungi invade the cells of higher plants and animals when these cells begin to decay or lose through disease their healthy power of resisting invasion.

"Bacteria are constantly found in every part of the living body where a tissue is no longer permeated by the fluids whose office it is to maintain it in a state of integrity. Soon after the currents of fluid have ceased, especially where the organic material is soft and easily decomposed, bacteria make their appearance, and grow and multiply rapidly. Nor is there a tissue or organ in the inmost parts of the body in which these organisms may not within the course of a few hours make their appearance. The germs are there; but so long as the normal state of things continues, these germs are prevented from being developed.

"These simple living organisms are without doubt destroyed in the healthy condition, although their germs may resist destruction. If the latter were to get into the healthy blood, they would not multiply, but towards the close of many exhausting diseases, both in animals and man, after the blood has undergone important changes, they are found in great numbers. It is, however, doubtful if in any case they can be regarded as the cause of the disease or the *materies morbi*, and it is far more probable that a change takes place before these organisms can multiply in the blood, and that a condition of things becomes established which is favourable to their growth and multiplication.

"There is then, I think, no good reason for supposing that the bacteria in such numbers in the alimentary canal in cholera have anything to do with this disease or with the falling off of epithelium from the intestinal or other mucous membranes. Bacteria are developed in organic matter which is not traversed and protected by the normal fluids of the body, and they invade the cells and textures in cholera after these cells and textures have undergone serious prior changes, just as they would invade textures removed from the body altogether. Nor would it be in accordance with known facts to infer that cholera was due to the invasion of some peculiar form or species of bacterium." * * *

"Cholera seems to be so constantly associated with the removal of columnar epithelium from the villi, that we have been led to look upon this as one of the *essential* phenomena of the disease. Although there may be no actual diarrhœa, this epithelium is found in quantity in the intestine after death. It may be said that this removal of epithelium occurs immediately after or only just before death, but the great number of columnar epithelial cells and entire sheaths of the villi so frequently found in the rice-water evacuation, giving to it its peculiar character, proves that such a notion is not tenable. Can cholera exist without the villi being denuded of their epithelium—is a question which, as far as I know, has not yet been answered, but which must be answered before we can form a correct notion of the nature of this most wonderful disease. I do not think there is any other morbid condition in which this striking change is observed—at any rate, to the extent or with the frequency it is met with in cholera. It seems, however, likely, that where those changes in the blood occur very quickly indeed, so as to cause death by sudden stagnation of the blood in the capillaries of important organs, there might not be time even for the removal of the epithelium from the villi, just as we may have death from smallpox or scarlatina without any eruption.

"With reference to the denudation of the villi, it must be borne in mind that the throwing off of epithelium is not confined to the villi of the intestine, or to that of the intestinal mucous membrane generally. The process affects the mucous membrane of the gall-bladder and larger gall-ducts; that of the bladder; ureters, and pelvis of the kidneys, as well as that of the Fallopian tubes, uterus, and vagina. In short, there seems a tendency to the removal of epithelium from the surface of all the soft, moist mucous membranes; not, it must be remembered, of the epithelium which is specially concerned in *elimination*, but rather of that which lines the *ducts* of glands and cavities which may be included in the category of the ductal portion of the different secreting glands.

"On the other hand, there is no evidence of the increased formation or more rapid removal of the secreting epithelium in the various glandular organs. The follicles of the mucous membrane of the stomach and intestine, those of the

salivary glands and pancreas, the tubes of the liver, kidney, and other glands still retain their epithelium; nor have I been able to demonstrate in these varieties of glandular epithelium any appearances peculiar to cholera. Indeed, so far as I have yet been able to observe, it would be extremely difficult to distinguish many secreting cells taken from the bodies of cholera victims from perfectly healthy cells."

17. *Internal Temperature in Cholera*.—Dr. WEBER, of the German Hospital, Dalston, states (*Med. Times and Gaz.*, Sept. 1) that he has found in several cases of cholera the temperature of the rectum to be more or less above the average of health; that it had been in one case of severe collapse as high as 103° , while in the axilla at the same time it scarcely exceeded 95° ; that with progressing recovery, the temperature in the rectum had decreased, while that in the axilla had increased.

18. *Aphasia with Right Hemiplegia, Softening in the Island of Reil, and External Frontal Convolution*.—Dr. SANDERS exhibited to the Edinburgh Medico-Chirurgical Society a drawing taken by Mr. Strethill Wright, of the base of the brain in a case of aphasia, recently fatal. The patient, Robina S., a female aged 50, had been under observation in the Royal Infirmary since 23d August last, and died on 17th April. She had been taken ill three days before admission. She was hemiplegic on the right side, and had entirely lost the power of speech, although her intelligence remained. She could only mumble inarticulately; no single word, not even "Yes," or "No," could be made out. Her writing consisted of unintelligible scratches. She was evidently anxious to express herself, and wept at her failure. Curiously, she could by signs make her husband understand her, and, by the nurse's report, they contrived to quarrel. There was no paralysis of the tongue or larynx; the hemiplegia affected chiefly the arm (which afterwards became rigid in the flexed position), also the leg and face on the right side, both of which, however, recovered a considerable amount of voluntary motion. She died of exhaustion, bedsores, and, ultimately, pneumonia. At the autopsy, the arteries at the base of the brain were found highly atheromatous. On the left hemisphere the principal lesion was softening, occupying the anterior and external portion of the island of Reil, and extending outwards and forwards into the under surface of the posterior part of the external frontal convolution (Broca's localization), which was affected, however, only to a small extent. The softening also penetrated inwards to the external and anterior part of the corpus striatum. There was also a small separate softening at the posterior part of the corpus striatum. There were also small detached softened portions in the white matter above and also behind the left ventricle. No lesion of the right hemisphere. Mr. Turner examined the brain along with Dr. S. This case partly supported, partly differed from, Broca's views. It suggested the island of Reil as a seat of the lesion in aphasia, the lobule of the island being of great importance in the conformation of the brain. Dr. S. mentioned, that since his case of aphasia had appeared in the *Edinburgh Medical Journal* of March, he had been asked to see three cases, and had received from friends information in regard to other three cases of aphasia; in all of the six cases, the aphasia was associated with hemiplegia, always of the right side of the body.—*Edinburgh Med. Journ.*, June, 1866.

19. *Atrophy and Degeneration of the Muscles of the Upper and Lower Extremities from Disease of the Spinal Cord*.—The following case of this was communicated to the Royal Med. and Chir. Soc. (June 12, 1866) by Mr. GEO. L. COOPER:—

J. J., aged 41 years, married, but his wife had no family; was much exposed to the weather in his daily occupation, at the same time had been a man of intemperate habits, and the subject of a long chronic cough. He was admitted under the care of the Author at the Bloomsbury Dispensary on February 14, and died on the 26th. He suffered from complete paralysis of the upper and lower extremities, with atrophy of the muscles of these parts. The symptoms were slow, but progressive. They commenced in the hands and feet, and

extended to the arms and legs, and ended in total paralysis. His cough was severe, with purulent expectoration, to the time of his death, which took place on February 26. The post-mortem showed much distension of the coverings of the cord from fluid, with congestion of the pia mater in the cervical region, and considerable softening in the substance of the white columns. At the commencement of the lower third in the dorsal region the central gray substance contained a large dilated vessel on each side, surrounded by extravasated blood-globules; and the extremities of the posterior cornua were highly vascular, as also in certain parts of the gray substance there were patches of extravasated blood.—*Med. Times and Gaz.*, July 21, 1866.

20. *Mode of Distinguishing between Nervous Idiopathic Albuminuria and the Albuminuria of Diseased Kidneys.*—The principle upon which M. CORLIEU founds the test by which he distinguishes between these two forms is, that when the kidneys are healthy the urine possesses the smell of odorous substances introduced into the system. He says that if such substances as cubebs, turpentine, &c., be ingested, they will give their characteristic odour to the urine, in cases of albuminuria, provided the kidneys be healthy; but if the kidneys be diseased, as in nephritis, the odour of these substances cannot be detected, even though they have been previously introduced into the system.—*Lancet*, July 9, 1866.

21. *Addison's Disease.*—Dr. GREENHOW exhibited for Dr. Dickinson two supra-renal capsules infiltrated with cancer. They had been taken from the body of a man, aged 56, who had presented no discolouration of skin nor any of the constitutional symptoms of Addison's disease. Malignant disease of the spine was diagnosed during life, and on post-mortem examination cancer of the lumbar vertebræ, pancreas, liver, heart, and other organs was found, together with cancer of the supra-renal capsules. Dr. Greenhow likewise exhibited the supra-renal capsules, tongue, penis, and scrotum taken from the body of a man aged 55. Addison's disease had been diagnosed on the day of the patient's admission into hospital. The constitutional symptoms were characteristic, and besides slight general discolouration of skin there was deep discolouration of some cicatrices of burns, and also of penis and scrotum, and the tongue presented on its upper surface round the free edge irregular purplish stains. On microscopical examination the pigment causing these stains was found deposited in the papillæ in brown masses, the superficial layer of epithelium remaining uncoloured. The supra-renal capsules had undergone the peculiar morbid change usual in Addison's disease. In the lungs and other organs there were also tubercular deposits. Dr. Greenhow said that these two cases were good illustrations of the difference in the effects produced on the general health by different diseases of the supra-renal capsules. A discussion two years before at the Pathological Society, showing that doubts were still entertained as to the reality of Addison's discovery, and that these doubts were mainly fostered by the confusion of genuine and spurious cases, had induced him (Dr. Greenhow) to abstract from the British and Irish journals for the purpose of analysis all the published cases not of Addison's disease only, but of cancerous and other diseases of the capsules, and also of bronzed-skin without any disease of the supra-renal capsules. Subsequently his attention had been drawn to treatises on the subject by M. Virchow and M. L. Martineau, and he had translated from the original sources all the foreign cases quoted in their writings. In all he had collected 195 cases, which he had carefully analyzed, and had found that in 127 the supra-renal capsules had undergone the particular morbid change characteristic of Addison's disease. In the other 68 cases the capsules were either healthy or had undergone cancerous or some other morbid change, or the change in them was too obscurely described to enable him to determine its nature. With a few explainable exceptions, none of these 68 cases presented either the constitutional symptoms of the peculiar discolouration characteristic of Addison's disease. On the contrary, among the 127 genuine cases, 95 presented either well-marked constitutional symptoms or characteristic discolouration of skin, and 72 of these presented both. In 20 cases some of the constitutional symptoms or some dis-

colouration of skin existed, and in many instances both, leaving only 12 out of the 127 cases which presented neither any characteristic symptoms nor any discolouration of skin. These 12 cases were all among those complicated with advanced tuberculosis or with other serious organic disease, which appeared to be the causes of death rather than the coexisting disease in the supra-renal capsules. On the other hand, only 5 of the 95 cases presenting characteristic symptoms or discolouration were found among the number complicated with serious non-tubercular diseases, and not one among those complicated with advanced phthisis. These facts seemed to be a sufficient refutation of the theory current abroad that the discolouration of skin peculiar to Addison's disease is due, not to the morbid change in the capsules, but to the general tuberculosis frequently associated with it. At the same time his (Dr. G.'s) analysis of the 127 genuine cases showed that while 46 cases were reported as entirely or virtually uncomplicated, and 16 as complicated with other serious diseases without tubercle, no less than 65, or an absolute majority of the whole number, were complicated with tubercular disease of lungs or other organs, in all gradations of development; so that it was impossible to avoid the conclusion of a very intimate relation between Addison's disease and the tubercular diathesis.

Dr. Quain said that he would wish to hear from Dr. Greenhow a clear definition of what he meant by the term "Addison's disease." The statistics quoted included a certain number of cases of bronzed skin without any disease of the supra-renal capsules, and a still larger number of cases in which there was more or less disease of the capsules and no bronzing of the skin at all. It did not seem altogether philosophical to take these two conditions and to say that it was their coexistence which alone constituted the disease. Dr. Quain then gave the particulars of an interesting case of fatal anæmia in a young gentleman, which he had seen with Dr. Addison, Dr. Bright, and Dr. Williams. It was one of the first two or three cases which had led Dr. Addison to state his views on the subject. In that case there was a deep ash-coloured pallor of the skin; the capsules were small, but not diseased. Dr. Quain thought there was still much room for investigating the character of the disease.

Dr. Greenhow said in reply that the cases collected by him were not of Addison's disease only, but of all diseases whatever of the supra-renal capsules which he had been able to find published from the time of Addison's discovery up to the end of 1865. He had only abstained from giving the well-known description of Addison's disease because he desired to be brief; but he thought it might be clearly defined as a particular lesion of the supra-renal capsules, manifested during life by a certain train of constitutional symptoms attended almost always by a characteristic discolouration of skin. No doubt his collection included a few cases of bronzed skin without any disease of capsules, but the bronzing was not the discolouration characteristic of Addison's disease. It included also a certain number of cases in which the capsules had been diseased without any discolouration of skin; but, with one or two exceptions, the disease either was not Addison's, or, being Addison's, it had been masked by some other predominant disease which appeared to have been the cause of death. As Mr. Hutchinson had suggested, when the discolouration was altogether absent, death had probably taken place at an early period of the disease. As regarded the relation between the symptoms and discolouration of Addison's disease on the one hand the characteristic change in the capsules on the other, he had no more doubt of its existence than he had of the existence of a relation between incompetency of the mitral valve or of a cavity in the lungs and the physical signs of these lesions during life. He had at present three cases of Addison's disease under observation, and he was bold enough to say that he should be quite willing to leave the question of the reality of Addison's discovery to be determined by the result of the post-mortem examination in any one of the three.—*Med. Times and Gaz.*, May 12, 1866.

22. *Influence of Sex and Age in Determining the Liability to Asthma.*—Dr. HYDE SALTER has preserved notes of upwards of one hundred and fifty cases of asthma, which have come under his observation since the publication of his elaborate work on that disease, and tabulated them. He has been able from

these to throw light on many points in relation both to the clinical phenomena and treatment of that affection.

1. In regard to *sex*. Of 153 cases 51 were females and 102 were males, showing the latter to be more liable to the disease than the former, in the proportion of *two to one*.

2. In regard to the time of life at which asthma makes its appearance, Dr. S.'s cases show that:—

1st. That the time of life the most prolific of asthma is the time of measles, of whooping-cough, and of infantile bronchitis.

2d. That adolescence furnishes comparatively few cases, because the diseases of childhood, so apt to lay the foundation of it, are over, while the wear and tear and hardships of life, and the deterioration of the body produced by them and by time, have not commenced.

3d. That from this time exposure and hardship and time begin to tell, and show their influence by the increasing asthma rate reaching its maximum at middle life. But, it may be asked, why should the tendency for asthma to show itself increase up to forty, and then diminish? Why should it not go on increasing as life advances, especially as we know that the tendency of catarrhal and other agencies to produce inflammatory conditions of the respiratory mucous membrane does increase up to the very end of life?

This brings me to the fourth point, which is this: That this diminishing probability of asthma making its first appearance after middle life shows that it does not follow the same law as bronchitis, and that there is something necessary for its development besides vascular change in the bronchial tubes and other organic lung mischief. This other thing is doubtless the asthmatic tendency or idiosyncrasy; and the way in which the necessity of the asthmatic idiosyncrasy for the production of the disease accounts for the diminishing probability, as life advances, of its making its first appearance is this: As every year is added, an individual is decreasingly likely to be exposed for the *first time* to the exciting cause of the disease; if any one has the predisposing cause—the asthmatic tendency—within him, it is not likely he will travel far through life without the exciting cause presenting itself and bringing the disease into activity, and those only can reach advanced life without becoming asthmatic in whom either the asthmatic tendency is *nil* or feeble, or who have fortuitously escaped circumstances calculated to call it into activity. Such a number must, according to the doctrine of chances, be a constantly decreasing series. The diminishing number of cases is, in fact, an exact measure of the diminishing probability of a person with the asthmatic tendency postponing his first exposure to exciting causes to so late a date.

There is nothing in relation to asthma about which more misconception prevails than the time of life at which it is apt to occur. It is commonly thought to be a disease of old age, and we frequently hear the expression “as asthmatic as an old man.” I believe there are two reasons for this error. One, that asthma, if it is not lost comparatively early in life, or if it comes on in middle life, is generally never lost, and therefore exists in old age; and thus many old people are truly asthmatic simply because they have never ceased to be so. The other reason is that chronic bronchitis—undoubtedly a disease of advanced life—is often mistaken for asthma: an old man coughs and wheezes and spits, and is said to have the asthma; but he has really chronic bronchitis; and although the bronchitis may have a little bronchial spasm superadded to it, or even a great deal, still it is essentially and substantively bronchitis.

3. *Duration*.—The longest time that asthma had existed in any of Dr. S.'s cases was sixty-four years. This period was reached in two instances; in one case the patient's age was sixty-nine, and he had become asthmatic at five; the other was seventy years old, and the asthma began at six.

There is no rule that the oldest cases have had the asthma the longest or the youngest the shortest time. Cases of the same age will have had their asthma very different times, while cases of equal standing will be found at various ages. Thus two of my cases aged seventy years had had their asthma one a year and one sixty-four years; while a third of the same age had had it just half his life, or thirty-five years. Again, two of my cases of equal standing,

both having had asthma twelve years, were one aged sixty-nine, and the other fifteen—one an old man and the other a young girl—yet their asthmatic age was the same. In this way there is every variety—no rule. Twenty-seven of my cases were upwards of twenty years' standing, and of these, two had suffered from asthma thirty-four years, two thirty-five years, one thirty-seven, one thirty-nine, one forty-three, two forty-five, one fifty-three, and two sixty-four. Such numbers as these show how little tendency the disease has to shorten life.—*Lancet*, July 28, 1866.

23. *Treatment of Delirium Tremens*.—Prof. GEO. JOHNSON, in a clinical lecture (*Lancet*, April 28th, 1866), expresses the following views as to the main points to be attended to in the treatment of delirium tremens, and the peculiar dangers to be guarded against:—

"First, bearing in mind the tendency to suicide, the patient must be constantly and carefully watched by a judicious attendant who has the power to exercise some moral control over him. The doors and windows should be secured, and razors, knives, and other means of mischief, put out of sight and reach. He should be kept quiet and undisturbed by noise or excess of light. It is better, if possible, to avoid direct physical restraint. If the patient be violent and difficult to control, secure the services of two attendants rather than have recourse to a strait-waistcoat. I have known more than one instance of sudden death from exhaustion induced by violent struggling against the restraint of the strait-waistcoat, and I have also known more than one instance of fatal exhaustion from struggling with injudicious attendants. Not long since a medical friend called one morning and desired me to go with him immediately to see a publican whom he had just before seen with an attack of delirium tremens. On entering the room we found the patient gasping for breath and evidently dying; and we learnt that immediately after my friend had left his patient, less than half an hour before, he got out of bed and wished to leave the room. Three strong men who were present resisted his attempt to go out; a struggle ensued, and in the midst of it he suddenly fell exhausted as we saw him, and he quickly ceased to breathe. You see, then, how great is the risk resulting from violent exertion on the part of these patients, and how important it is to avoid any restraint which is likely to provoke a struggle. In some instances a patient who cannot otherwise be kept in bed will remain perfectly quiet under the restraint of the waistcoat; but while he is thus restrained he must on no account be left alone. He may begin to struggle at any moment, and this struggle may cause rapid and fatal exhaustion.

"To sum up, then, what I have said on the subject of restraint, the guiding principle is to prevent any violent exertion on the part of the patient—any struggle either with the strait-waistcoat or with the attendants. A padded room, when it can be had, is the safest and most effectual means of restraint for a violent patient.

"Having insured the safe custody of the patient, we have next to consider the method of treatment. Now, in the first place, bear in mind that delirium tremens is one of those diseases from which recovery may take place without any assistance from drugs. Medicines are of great use in the treatment; but they are not essential. It is, however, of essential importance that the delirious patient should be *fed*. The history of the disease teaches us that the immediate cause of the delirium is the exhaustion consequent on a defect of wholesome nutriment; and, until this defect be supplied, all attempts to procure the wished-for sleep, which is so generally followed by a cessation of the excitement, are often useless and worse than useless.

"Whatever else you do or leave undone, never neglect to feed a delirious patient. If he will take food when he first comes under treatment, give it immediately, and let it be repeated as soon as he will take it. If there be, as there often is, a disinclination for food, with nausea and a coated tongue, an emetic of ipecacuanha, followed by a dose of calomel and colocynth, or a saline laxative, will be of use as a preparation for food and for the opiate, which may best be given at bedtime. You may then give from a half to one drachm of tincture of opium, which I believe to be a better soporific in these cases than

the salts of morphia; and a smaller dose may be given in three or four hours if necessary. The first object is to procure sleep. But here I wish to impress upon you the necessity of great care and watchfulness. Do not make rash attempts to force on sleep by repeated large doses of opium. These attempts will often fail to procure sleep, and they may kill the patient. It is an undoubted fact, that opium in many of these cases has no soporific effect whatsoever. And not only in cases of delirium tremens is opium uncertain in its operation. When we give opium in ordinary cases of disease as an anodyne or a soporific, we can never be sure that it will cause sleep. In a considerable proportion of cases opium *prevents* sleep, and makes the patient more wakeful than he would have been without it. Another not uncommon effect of an opiate is to cause nausea and faintness. These two effects of opium should always be borne in mind in the treatment of delirium tremens. Remember that when opium fails to act as soporific in delirium tremens it is not inert, and must not be given in repeated large doses as if it were; while it fails to procure sleep, it may be exerting a powerful depressing and paralyzing influence upon the heart. The symptoms of opium thus acting on the heart are these: The patient continues wakeful, excited, and delirious, but grows rapidly weaker; the pulse becomes quick, small, and feeble; the pupils are contracted; the skin is bathed in a profuse sweat; and, if the opium be continued in large and frequent doses, the patient rapidly sinks, but remains wakeful and conscious until perhaps within a few minutes of the end. The opium in these cases acts as a powerful sedative on the heart, and in proportion as it does this it fails to exercise any soporific influence. If you find that opium is acting thus injuriously, you must immediately discontinue it, and give liberal doses of brandy, or the stimulant to which the patient has been accustomed. Full doses of quinia, too, will be of use as a tonic; and nutriment, either in the liquid or solid form, should be freely given.

"It is an undoubted fact that the soporific effect of opium is often much more certain and decided when the medicine is given with some alcoholic stimulant than when it is given alone; and I have seen not a few cases of delirium tremens in which, after repeated large doses of opium have failed to procure sleep, a liberal allowance of the patient's accustomed stimulant, more especially when combined with food, has been followed by a long sleep, and this by an entire freedom from delusions and delirium. I scarcely need impress upon you that these unquestionable facts are quite irreconcilable with the hypothesis that the proximate and essential cause of delirium tremens is the presence of alcohol in the blood. If the patient refuse to take the opiate or other medicine which you are anxious to give, he may sometimes be induced to take it mixed with his beer or other beverage. Both food and stimulants may be given by the rectum in case of need; and morphia may be introduced subdermically; but this mode of giving morphia requires at least as much caution as the administration of opiates by the mouth.

"Chloroform vapour has the immediate effect of quieting the delirium and excitement; but the quiescence is only temporary, and I have seen no permanent good result from it. The fat and flabby state of the heart in these cases is a bar to the incautious administration of chloroform.

"When there is much flushing of the face and heat of the scalp, cold lotions or iced water in a bladder may be applied to the head with advantage.

"You may have heard or read of large doses of tincture of digitalis having been given for the cure of delirium tremens. I consider this a very dangerous remedy. I have no doubt that some patients have recovered in spite of the treatment. When half-ounce doses of the tincture have been given, it is to be hoped that the digitalis was of bad quality; the patient would then, at any rate, have the benefit to be derived from the stimulant action of the rectified spirit. I have heard of several instances of sudden death after the administration of large doses of digitalis, and it is only natural that these calamitous results should not, as a rule, obtain equal publicity with the cases of apparently successful treatment. A consideration of the natural history of delirium tremens suffices, I think, to show that the treatment by large doses of digitalis is irrational and dangerous.

"To sum up, then, the main practical points which I have endeavoured to impress upon you. Bear in mind that an attack of delirium tremens, as a rule, subsides in a few days without help from medicines of any kind. Let the patient be carefully watched and guarded and fed, and the excitement and delirium will gradually subside. In many instances opium is a valuable aid in the treatment, and it will often cut short the disease; but remember that it is powerful for evil as well as for good. Its use, therefore, requires much care and discrimination. Some form of alcoholic stimulant will often be of great use in calming the nervous excitement and procuring sleep."

24. *Treatment of Pneumonia*.—Dr. ALEX. SMITH has published (*Edinburgh Medical Journal*, July, 1866) some interesting facts in regard to the treatment of pneumonia, deduced from his experience in 108 cases in soldiers, treated at various stations in Canada. There were 3 deaths, giving a mortality of 1 in 36.

In regard to bloodletting, he says: "My experience of the effects of bloodletting convinced me that its employment at the outset of pneumonia in its sthenic form was attended with most beneficial results, not only in shortening the duration of the disease, and rendering convalescence satisfactory, but also in giving an amount of certainty and uniformity to the results of treatment which could not be attained by the employment of any other combination of remedies. As to its power in "cutting short" the disease—if by this term is meant to be expressed the probability of its at once arresting, and as it were stamping it out—my own experience would go to show that its employment is not attended with any such result. In proof of this I may mention that so soon as I became aware of the import of the condition of the respiration, which is first observed at the outset of pneumonia, I attempted, by early bleeding before the disease had advanced beyond the stage indicated by obscurity of the respiratory sounds, to arrest it in that of engorgement. In no case, however, was this practice attended with the result desired; but, on the contrary, in every attack so treated, instead of being altogether prevented, small crepitation seemed to undergo an earlier development—an occurrence which may perhaps be held as in some measure bearing out the accuracy of the views I have expressed as to the nature of the early stage of the disease in sthenic attacks. The subsequent progress of all such cases bled was otherwise invariably satisfactory.

"I would still, however, feel inclined to consider this question in the light of an open one, and to believe, until distinct proof to the contrary shall have been produced, that bloodletting practised soon after the occurrence of the rigor may possibly at once arrest the disease. I am the more inclined to this view of the matter, because Dr. Jameson, my colleague in the 47th Regiment, informs me, that in one case which he bled freely immediately on the man's admission into hospital, and within a very short time of the occurrence of an attack of rigor which, from all the attending circumstances, and happening as it did at a time when pneumonia was prevalent, among the men of the corps, appeared to be the initial symptom of an attack of that disease, no further indisposition followed. This may or may not have been a case which, if it had not been so treated, would have proved one of pneumonia; but still I believe the fact is worth recording.

"A perusal of the records of cases which I have given above will show I think, upon the whole, with considerable clearness, that it was by limiting the stage to which the diseased action advanced, rather than by affecting the extent of lung to be attacked, that bloodletting manifested its power to shorten the duration of the disease. That it also influenced the amount of lung attacked, however, appears evident, from what was found to have happened in some of the fatal cases, neither of which were bled at the outset of the disease. It may be here stated, with regard to the extent of lung affected in cases early bled, that it amounted, as a general rule, to from one-half to three-fourths; and that in respect of the part first attacked, in no instance did the disease begin at the apex.

"After having most carefully watched the whole course of the disease in attacks where bloodletting was employed at the outset, I feel satisfied that in no case so treated did red hepatization take place; both the exaggerated respiratory sound

heard near the acme of engorgement, as well as the absence of evidence of the entrance of air, except during forced respiration, which frequently for a few hours preceded the setting in of small crepitation, having been, as already so often stated, unconnected with any degree of actual consolidation. Neither were the bronchitic sonorous râles occasionally audible along with large and small crepitation near the middle of the lung, in the course of some of the cases, confounded with the blowing sound of bronchial respiration heard when true hepatization was present. The facts of greatest importance, however, noticed with reference to the employment of bloodletting, were the rapidity with which such cases recovered in proportion to the severity of the attacks, and the uniformity of the results observed on a review of the whole cases so treated, as compared with that obtained in the milder and more asthenic attacks in which bloodletting was not made use of. This has been shown by the tabular statements given at an earlier part of the paper.

"A further consideration, possessing also considerable practical importance, is the fact, that in cases not bled it was found that there existed, throughout the greater part of the attack, a danger that a fresh accession of fever, and a rapid advance to hepatization, might not only suddenly occur, but do so at a period of the disease when good results from bloodletting, if it should then be employed, were but little likely to be obtained. In conclusion, I would, however, beg that it may be distinctly understood, that whilst advocating the employment of bloodletting at the outset of sthenic cases of pneumonia, such as are seen in young and previously healthy soldiers, and whilst maintaining also from actual observation that the good results which follow such a mode of treatment surpass in a marked degree those obtained from any other combination of remedies, I do not in any way call in question the value of that mode of treatment termed 'restorative,' as applied to a particular class of cases, and which has been employed with so much success in the management of the pneumonia as seen in civil hospitals in Britain.

"It would appear, however, from such limited details as have been given of the cases, on the results obtained, in which this plan of treatment has been based, not only that the attacks were of an asthenic character, but it may also be inferred that, in a large proportion of instances, the disease had advanced to the stage of actual consolidation before it was brought under medical treatment at all. On this supposition, therefore, these were cases in which bloodletting would in all probability have been inadmissible, but they were exactly such as would derive benefit from the description of treatment in question. My own experience of pneumonia would, accordingly, lead me to conclude that it was only in such asthenic cases as those above referred to, modified as they must be by the minor degree of intensity of their exciting cause, as it prevails in a climate equable on the whole as that of Britain is, and influenced also as they cannot fail to be by conditions of food, clothing, locality, and occupation, that this plan of treatment can be advantageously employed.

"In sthenic cases, such as came under my own observation in Canada, and of which it is possible that examples may occasionally be met with at home, facts have convinced me that a restorative plan of treatment could not be exclusively employed without the risk of at least a considerable mortality, or at all events the almost certainty of a recovery protracted beyond what it would have been had bloodletting been made use of. I would further add, that what I have learned in the course of this inquiry induces me to believe that much of the confusion and diversity of opinion which have of late years arisen on the subject of the pathology and treatment of pneumonia has been the result of a somewhat restricted view of the extent of the field of inquiry embraced by the subject under investigation, and the too resolute belief, not only that the asthenic pneumonia, which has of late years supplied the large proportion of the cases met with in this country, is the sole form in which inflammation of the lungs prevails now, but is even the only type in which that disease has existed at any previous period. I must at the same time beg leave to be pardoned if I venture also to hint my suspicion that some portion of this state of opinion may likewise be due to the condition of the lungs which exists during the highest state of engorgement having been confounded with that state of actual hepatization the

occurrence of which renders it absolutely essential for the cure of the disease that the next highest stage—that of suppuration or gray hepatization—should also follow.”

25. *Treatment of Diphtheria.*—Dr. W. LINDESAY RICHARDSON, of the Ballarat Hospital, Melbourne, has in the course of seven years had under his care two hundred and twenty cases of diphtheria. Of these, one hundred and seven occurred in children under ten years of age. The number of deaths was eighteen; two only of which were in-patients about five years old. This mortality (8.2 per cent.) is, Dr. Richardson observes, very little in excess of that of measles (7 per cent.). As to the treatment, he observes that there is no disease more amenable to treatment in patients over five years of age, nor any in which a favourable termination may more speedily be predicted. The treatment consisted in 1859 of the free use of caustics from the first, chlorine gargles and iodide of potassium. This was not successful. In 1860 and 1861, the chlorate of potash and hydrochloric acid mixture was used, still occasionally applying caustic. Since then, local applications have been completely disused, and the muriated tincture of iron has been given in full doses, and latterly the chlorate of potash in powder with sugar dry on the tongue. Dr. Richardson used the nitrate of silver, in the first years of the appearance of the disease; then hydrochloric acid and honey; but his experience is that all applications to the throat are useless, and even hurtful. The mixture containing free chlorine he considers certainly of great value, but its strength appears to vary and its action is not certain. The muriated tincture of iron was first brought into notice, as a remedy in this disease, by the author's friend, Mr. T. H. Smith, of St. Mary's Cray, in a paper that appeared in the *British Medical Journal* some years ago. Dr. Richardson has found it most reliable in all cases of membranous diphtheria. The fever symptoms are no indications against its use, as under it the pulse falls. In a case under treatment, one day the pulse was 146; the patient was put on twenty minims every two hours, and next day it was 96, with an improving throat. It did not, however, appear to exert any speedy influence over the disease when it had extended into the trachea. It was necessary then to resort to emetics, to expel the false membrane as it forms. Dr. Richardson prefers common salt and sulphate of copper; succeeding these, the inhalation of turpentine on hot flannels, with the constant application of compresses around the throat, are most beneficial. Dr. Richardson performed tracheotomy in one case, and assisted at it in several, but always without success. In putrid sloughing throat, he finds that neither caustics, nor tincture of iron, nor solution of chlorine, nor quinia, exert any influence; and after trying various remedies he at last hit upon what he believed a most valuable remedy, chlorate of potash in powder. It appears to be unactive, even in a saturated solution; but in large enough doses, mixed with sugar, dry on the tongue, it exerts an immediate influence. In mixed or relapsing cases, an alternation of the two meets the case. On the important question of support to the patient, there can be no difference of opinion. Dr. Richardson has not examined the urine in every case; in those in which he did, he did not find any trace of albumen, nor any deposit more abnormal than lithates and purpurates. Six persons suffered at different times from two distinct attacks. Recovery as a rule is rapid, and paralysis as a sequela has been rare; three cases only having occurred.—*Australian Med. Journ.*, July, 1865.

26. *The Milk Cure.*—The *Edinburgh Medical Journal* for August of the present year contains an article on this subject by Dr. PHILIP KARELL, Physician to the Emperor of Russia, translated by Dr. Carrick. After giving a brief historical sketch of the use of milk as a remedial measure, he says: “With regard to my own practice, I have, after fruitlessly trying all sorts of remedies in many chronic and obstinate diseases, at last succeeded in thoroughly bringing the alimentary canal, that seat of so many diseases, under my control. I did this by administering milk according to a new method. The results which I have thus obtained tempt me to publish my observations with reference to the efficiency of this mode of cure, provided, of course, that it be administered with

method, and by a person of experience. And in the first place, then, must we attribute the beneficial influence of milk in certain serious illnesses merely to its nutritive qualities, or to some occult medicinal virtue? I cannot pronounce in favour of the one or of the other hypothesis. It must be remembered, however, that milk and chyle resemble each other very closely. After a great deal of experience, I have arrived at the conclusion that in *all dropsies, in asthma*, when the result of emphysema and pulmonary catarrh; in obstinate *neuralgia*, when its cause lies in the intestinal canal; in diseases of the *liver* (simple hypertrophy and fatty degeneration), and generally in diseases where there is faulty nutrition, often a consequence of obscure subacute inflammation of the stomach or intestines, followed by affection of the nervous centres—in all these cases I consider milk as the best and surest of remedies. Even in those cases where the dropsy is the result of organic heart disease, or of old-standing liver complaint, or of far-advanced Bright's disease, I have seen very marked improvement take place, which also lasted a considerable time. But if, unfortunately, we are unable to cure organic disease, shall we not have conferred a great benefit on poor anasarcaous patients if we reduce, with a promptitude little hoped for from other remedies, the distressing symptoms of œdema?

"If, in giving a general definition of the milk cure, we call it a *nutritive cure*, it by no means follows that it should only be administered in diseases dependent upon a perverse nutrition. It might as well be defined as a *sedative cure*, for it is very often useful in those cases where Valsalva would in all probability have employed fasting and phlebotomy. A more exact definition, perhaps, would be, that milk, when methodically administered, is a *regulator of nutrition*. It might perhaps be urged that milk is a well-known remedy, and that every physician uses it in appropriate cases. I admit that all medical men are sufficiently well acquainted with milk as a nutritive agent, and as an antidote, but I speak from experience when I assert that in general the cure by milk, *scrupulously administered, and in strictly measured doses*, is not sufficiently, and only very rarely, recognized as a sovereign and useful remedy.

"I have frequently, during the last fifteen years, been called into consultation in cases which were thought hopeless, and in many of which I recommended the milk cure, which had never been resorted to during the whole course of the malady. I had prescribed, even before that time, the employment of milk, but without regulating its administration. It was only by degrees that I arrived at a methodical system of treatment."

The following is Dr. K.'s mode of treatment:—

"I generally commence the cure by employing milk *alone* and forbidding all other kind of nourishment. I proceed with great caution in prescribing for the patient, three or four times daily, and at *regularly observed intervals*, half a tumbler or a tumbler, *i. e.*, from two to six ounces of skimmed milk. Its temperature must be made to suit the patient's taste. In winter they generally like tepid milk, heated by placing the tumbler or cup in a vessel filled with hot water. In summer they generally prefer it of the same temperature as the surrounding atmosphere. They should not gulp it all at once, but take it slowly and in small quantities, so that the saliva may get well mixed with it. Of course, the milk must be of good quality. That of town-fed cows has an acid reaction; that of country-fed cows is better, because its reaction is generally neutral. If the patient digest the milk well, which is proved by the feces becoming solid, I gradually increase the dose. The first week is the most difficult to get over, unless the patient has a strong will and firm faith in the cure. During the second week, two ordinary quarts are generally administered each day. If the cure take its regular course, then the milk must be drunk four times daily—at eight in the morning, at noon, at four P. M., and at eight P. M. If the patient desire it, I change the hours, but I always insist on regular intervals being observed, for the patient will think lightly of the cure if he be not ordered to observe some regularity while subjected to it. No confidence can be inspired, and no cure expected, if the physician says to his patient, 'Drink milk in whatever quantities and whenever you wish.'

"When obedient to the physician's orders, the patients complain neither of hunger nor thirst, although the first doses appear very small to them. If,

instead of four cups of skimmed milk, a person afflicted with a severe illness takes four large tumblerfuls of unskimmed milk, you may be sure he will not digest it, and his confidence in the remedy will be shaken at the very commencement. * * *

"But it must not be supposed that such an effect can generally be produced when nothing is administered except small doses of milk. I have placed patients who were taking milk in minute quantities also on beef-tea, white bread, and water; but I never observed the same satisfactory results after this mode of treatment. The cure never was complete when allowed anything except milk to be taken for dinner. Sometimes, when the invalid had arrived at taking from ten to twelve glasses per day, I observed a return of his illness. I had then to commence the cure anew, by prescribing milk in small doses. At the beginning of the treatment, the patient's bowels are frequently constipated, which I consider of good augury. The feces become very hard, in consequence of the absorption of the fluid particles of the milk. This may be remedied by warm water injections, or by the use of castor oil or rhubarb. Persons suffering from flatulence are soon relieved of it by the milk cure. If the constipation be obstinate, I order the addition every morning of a little coffee to the dose of milk, or, towards four o'clock P. M., stewed prunes or a roasted apple. If, on the other hand, diarrhoea and borborygmi be the result of this mode of cure, it proves either that the milk was too rich, or that it has been administered in too large doses. If the diarrhoea does not arise from ulceration of the intestines, it is sure to be cured by strict observance of method in this treatment.

"Feverishness is no contra-indication to its use. If the patient feel very thirsty, I allow him to drink water or Seltzer-water. If he have a strong desire for solid food, I allow him, at the end of the second or third week, a little stale white bread with salt, or a small piece of salt herring. At four o'clock, *i. e.*, his dinner hour, the patient may, as in the morning, take a small quantity of stale bread. Once a day, instead of pure milk, I give him some soup made of milk and oatmeal. After continuing this treatment for five or six weeks, it may be modified (according to circumstances) by our allowing only milk thrice daily, and once a week a steak or chop. I have found that raw meat is easiest to digest.

"The strongest opposition to treatment I have generally experienced from the patients themselves, and the cause is easily explained. If a person, suffering from some chronic ailment, has already been subjected to various modes of treatment, without having been cured by any one of them, and if the milk cure be suggested to him, which, in his opinion, can lead to no improvement, he thinks it is the same as a verdict which declares: 'You are lost, and medicine cannot save you!' I have sometimes seen nervous patients grow seriously alarmed, and request time to reflect whether they should subject themselves to the treatment or not. Thus the patients either assert that milk is repulsive to them, or that they are unable to digest it; this one because he has always been troubled with his liver; another because he smokes; while a third is afraid he will die of hunger, or pretends that he has already tried the milk cure, but was unable to continue with it because of the disagreeable effects it produced. Others ask what purpose the milk cure can serve, when other medicines have done little, if any good. My answer then is that milk is a food easy of digestion with every person, provided it be given with precaution, that it be of good quality, and administered in definite doses; that it is the first food of man, and that a new-born infant shows no dislike to new milk. To die of hunger, even when taking nothing but milk, is impossible, since there are people who take no other nourishment. In milk are united all the elements necessary for the nutrition of our body, and besides this substance is easily assimilated. Lastly, I add that long experience has convinced me that milk is an energetic remedy in many diseases, and that in some cases I prefer it to any other remedy. Thus I am rarely unable to persuade the patient to follow out my advice; and in the majority of cases, notably those of dropsy, I have generally had the satisfaction of receiving, in a very short while, the sincere thanks of the patient for the speedy relief he felt. * * *

"In summing up the phenomena always observed among the patients cured

or treated by other physicians and myself, I must enumerate: An intractable state of the blood, impoverished to the utmost extent, and general dropsy; disordered innervation, assuming the forms of hysteria, or hypochondriasis; obstinate dyspepsia, neither the result of congestion of the stomach nor of cancer of that organ; in fact, catarrhal, rheumatic, and gouty affections, as also nervous maladies not the result of a *local disease*, but of quantitative and qualitative defects in the fluids; or, to speak, more clearly, a constitutional disease. If the cause of the disease was apparently situated in the organs of digestion, the more strongly was I tempted to try this cure. I have thus cured, or very much relieved, chronic irritations of the pharynx and of the œsophagus, ulcers of the stomach, and similar diseases of the digestive tract. These *gastric cases* formed the greater portion of the 200. Among these, satisfactory results were obtained in a very short time. The desponding patient became lively, the gloomy countenance brightened up, the big belly decreased in size, and, as a consequence, many other unpleasant symptoms disappeared; in a word, the patient felt quite a new man.

"And even where the seat of the malady was not always as clear as in the cases above cited; but where the disease of any organ seemed to be connected with some derangement of the digestive tract, I have invariably tried the milk cure. For I thus produce a good result simply by regulating the diet, and by excluding indigestible articles of food. And I have thus frequently had the satisfaction to see a complete cure effected by such simple means in cases where deep-seated organic disease was suspected. My own experience, and that of other physicians, has shown that great improvements, and even almost a complete feeling of health, have attended this treatment, when employed in cases of organic disease of the heart, of advanced degeneration of the kidneys, etc. Taking into consideration the fact that hypertrophy of the heart and the central congestion, as well as increased bronchial secretion which result therefrom, are frequently caused by disorder of the abdominal circulation, I think I have found an exact indication for the milk. I have modified the milk cure according to circumstances in treating plethoric persons.

"The fatty degeneration of the arteries, and the consequent friability being so frequently one of the determining causes of apoplexy, I think we shall find an exact indication in that disease for the use of milk. Neither can I say that constitutional debility was common to all patients whom I placed under the milk cure. On the contrary, I have made persons of a florid complexion undergo the treatment—persons of muscular build and a full pulse, who are generally ordered a temperate regimen, and who, to prevent congestion and apoplexy, take bitter and saline solutions with benefit. For advanced tuberculosis we have no remedy. In cases where this disease is complicated with tubercular ulceration of the intestines, I cannot foretell very good results from the use of milk.

"Fever is no contra-indication to its use. The utmost caution, however, should be used when milk is administered in such cases. At the commencement the doses should not be increased too speedily, for the patient's stomach will not absorb more milk than it can digest.

"To sum up, I have already strongly expressed myself against the practice of extolling the milk cure as a panacea; nevertheless, I feel no hesitation in declaring that the number of cases for which I prescribed the milk cure with a great degree of confidence is very considerable, and that in these cases I could have expected no good results had I resorted to any other mode of cure."

27. *Citrate of Soda in Diabetes*.—M. GUYOT-DANNEY recommends citrate of soda, in daily doses of half a drachm to a drachm, as a remedy in diabetes. It has been shown by analysis that sugar disappears from the urine when this salt is used with the food instead of common salt. It is also known, since the researches of Wœhler, that the alkaline salts of organic acids, when given in doses too small to produce purgative effects, are absorbed, and, their acid being burned up in the respiratory process, are eliminated by the urine as carbonates. Hence citrate of soda may, without interfering with the gastric acid in the same way as alkaline carbonates, place the system under the influence of an alkaline carbonate, which is indispensable to the interstitial combustion of the glucose of the food.

The efficacy of this remedy, and its superiority to the prolonged administration of bicarbonate of soda, have to be proved by clinical experience.—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, May 19, 1866, from *Bull-Gén. de Thérap.*, April 15, 1866.

SURGICAL PATHOLOGY AND THERAPEUTICS, AND OPERATIVE SURGERY.

28. *Osteo-Myelitis*.—This affection, which is one of the frequent causes of death after amputation or other injuries or surgical operations involving section of bone, attracted the attention of a number of our surgeons during our late war, and was made the subject of a highly interesting paper by Dr. H. Allen, published in the No. of this Journal for January, 1865.

Dr. J. FAYRER, in his address before the Bengal Branch of the British Medical Association, published in the *Indian Annals of Medical Science*, October, 1865, states that with the view of illustrating this affection, he has noted 32 amputations performed within a period of two years in his practice in the wards of the Medical College Hospital. These amputations "were all capital operations, *i. e.*, of the upper and lower extremities, either at the joints, or through the continuity of the long bones. They were—one of the hip, three of the thigh, ten of the leg, four of the ankle (*Syme's*), five at the shoulder-joint, five of the arm, four of the forearm. Of these, thirty-two in all, three were secondary amputations, and of the number, fourteen lived, fifteen died. Of the deaths, nine resulted from pyæmia, the consequence of osteo myelitis, three from pyæmia not depending on bone disease. There were six deaths from other causes, such as tetanus, gangrene, exhaustion. Now it will be at once recognized that this proportion of deaths from pyæmia, depending on bone disease, is something unusual—something very different to the ordinary death returns of other hospitals. It is this, therefore, that I wish specially to call your attention to, not only in regard to its pathology, but with respect to the treatment, which involves a question of amputation of much importance.

"The subject of acute suppuration in bone is one which has, apparently, not attracted much attention hitherto in this country, nor, indeed, has it been, so far as I am aware, so much studied anywhere as by the French surgeons, who have given it the name of *osteomyélite*, by which we also now distinguish it. M. Jules Roux, Surgeon in Chief of the Great Naval Hospital of St. Maundrièr, in Toulon, is the authority to whom we are indebted for the most elaborate account of this important subject in both its pathological and surgical bearings. His experience was chiefly gained in the treatment of the wounded of the French-Italian war, who were sent to Toulon for treatment—all, consequently, cases of disease or injury of some standing; and the results of his observation and treatment are interesting in the highest degree: for they not only establish the recognition of the disease as a formidable result of operations on bone and of injuries, such as those inflicted by gunshot wounds in bone, but they point to the necessity of thoroughly re-considering the question of amputation, and fully, in my opinion, tend to confirm the view that the site of the amputation has, not less than the time at which it is performed, much to say to the mortality.

"M. Legouest tells us that at the Hospital of Dolma Bachè in Constantinople, out of 639 cases of amputation, M. Salleron lost 224, or little less than one-fourth. The amputations in the continuity of the bone were 490, resulting in 192 deaths from purulent infection of 1 in 21.2. The disarticulations, in number 149, resulted in 32 deaths, or 1 in 42.3.

"M. J. Roux records, in his practice in St. Maundrièr, the following remarkable success in the treatment of serious cases of gunshot injuries requiring amputation, all being secondary amputations.

4 Hip-joint	.	.	.	.	.	.	Successful.
13 Shoulder-joint	.	.	.	.	.	.	"
1 Knee	"	.	.	.	.	.	"
3 Ankle	"	.	.	.	.	.	"
1 Metacarpo-phalangeal	.	.	.	.	.	.	"

"A series of 22 successful disarticulations, 20 of which followed gunshot injuries of bones.

"Now it is perfectly clear that this extraordinary success is due to something more than the skill of the surgeon, the advantages of the hospital, or other local conditions in which the patients were placed; and I think the evidence is strongly in favour of the fact that disarticulation is frequently a safer method of amputation than section of the injured bone, and also, that in cases where the bone is affected from local endemic causes, it is a clear indication that removal of the bone so diseased is desirable—That, after amputation, they have this tendency, in certain cases, to become diseased, there can be no doubt, and, in certain places, and under certain conditions, this tendency is more strongly marked than in others. It has long forced itself upon my attention in this hospital as one of the most frequent sources of purulent infection and consequent mortality from which we suffer.

"I would be understood that it is not to the *disarticulation*, as such, that I attribute the success in all cases, nor do I urge the operation always in preference to section of the bone of the next segment of the limb. In the cases of the hip and shoulder, disarticulation, of course, alone is practicable; whereas in the leg and forearm, the respective advantages of disarticulation at the elbow or knee may fairly be questioned; and I have no hesitation in saying it is my opinion that, except in cases of endemic tendency to osteo-myelitis, section of the humerus or femur, in their lower third, is as good, if not a better operation than disarticulation. The great point to be attained is removal of the whole of the suppurating bone; of course, whenever the endemic tendency to osteo-myelitis prevails in a hospital, this disarticulation, though, in itself, inferior as an operation to section of the bone (according to my view in the case of the elbow and knee), would be preferred to amputation through the bone, as the fresh bone-wound might, under the endemic influence, give rise to an attack of osteo-myelitis.

"The points of interest in M. Roux's treatment are, that by disarticulating, he anticipates the chance of osteo-myelitis, by not opening the cancellated tissue of the bone (in ordinary wounds); and that in cases where it has set in, he removes the source of blood contamination by the ablation of the affected bone.

"I have no intention of discussing the question of the general application of the term osteo-myelitis in the wide sense in which it is given to the chronic form of disease by the French surgeons, and which involve a whole series of pathological changes in bone, in which the necessity of immediate amputation, is, at all events, not concerned. But it is to the acute and diffusive, a sort of erysipelatous form, an analogue of diffuse suppuration in the areolar tissue, that I refer—a disease, so far as I have seen it, so extensive, as regards the bone it affects, that it causes its entire destruction, and speedily, if not removed, gives rise to that septic condition of the blood which results fatally in a large number of cases, and where, after death, the evidences of the blood-poison are seen in structural changes in the viscera of the most interesting nature. These I will presently describe. It is to this point in the pathology of the disease that I would especially call attention, for, grievous as the injury of the bone is when it becomes the seat of this acute suppuration, it is not *the mere local mischief* that one dreads, although one may cause the loss of the limb. It is the *constitutional disease* to which it gives rise, and the consequent morbid condition of the blood, which is, I believe, if once thoroughly established, and not promptly dealt with, certain to entail fatal results, that we must consider *the great source of danger*. It is, then, not only to the disease, acute suppuration in the cancellated tissue, involving the whole bone and causing its rapid disorganization, but it is also to the treatment by which I believe, if the disease be early recognized, life may be preserved, that I would call attention, and it involves a ques-

tion of amputation of the greatest importance, which I think I have satisfied myself in my own experience, as well as by the results of M. Jules Roux's practice, is deserving of the consideration of every surgeon. It is, indeed, not less than it was pronounced to be by the Baron Larrey—'a system which, if it could be adopted without control, would be, so to speak, to revolutionize the surgery of amputations.' It is not, I need hardly say, to be adopted without control, but to be carefully considered and applied in fitting cases. It is a doctrine that will thus be the salvation of many lives which otherwise would be lost."

With regard to treatment, Dr. F. says: "Prevention here is indeed better than cure. The former *may* be accomplished; the latter, when the disease has thoroughly established itself, is, to say the least, very rare.

"The preventive measures are all such as are included in the great questions of hospital hygiene—free ventilation, good food, and segregation of patients. osteo-myelitis occurs no doubt, like other diseases of the same genus, more readily where numbers are crowded together, and where the ventilation and other sanitary arrangements are also defective. The disease is also at times epidemic. It has visited hospitals for a time and passed away, like erysipelas or gangrene, as was the case in the Hôtel Dieu in 1814, where it caused great mortality after amputations. It is more or less endemic, as in our own hospital, and how far it is due here to insanitation I am not prepared to offer an opinion, but I have already said that I think it is at least as much due to the people as to the Hospital, and I can say that no efforts have been spared to remove all local causes of disease.

"Wherever sanitary arrangements are good, with pure air, good food, space large, and, above all, where the patients are not overcrowded, the conditions exist which are unfavourable to the occurrence of the disease.

"As to treatment, the earlier the disease is recognized, the more likely is any treatment to be successful.

"When the pulse quickens, and rigors occur, when the discharge begins to assume an ichorous and unhealthy character; when, on examination, the bone proves to be denuded of periosteum and the medullary cavity filled with dead bone and pus, I am satisfied that the sooner amputation at, or above, the next joint is had recourse to, the better is the chance of saving the patient's life. The danger is of waiting too long, long enough for the blood poison, or the capillary embolism, to have brought about changes in the viscera, which are the precursors, if not the cause, of death.

"On the earliest appearance of these symptoms after an amputation or injury of bone, the sooner the bone is thoroughly examined the better, and the conditions I have described being detected, the sooner amputation at or above the next joint follows, the better also.

"As to the use of internal remedies I have little to say, none, so far as my experience goes, have any effect. The tinct. ferri sesquichloridi, port wine, quinine, and, according to Polli, the sulphites, have been freely used; but to none of them have I been able to ascribe any curative effect. Beyond supporting the strength, removing the source of the toxæmia by amputation or excision of the bone, and the administration of preparations of iron with stimulants, I know of no hope or chance of saving life; and when the lungs or liver have become affected, it is indeed small.

"I cannot say recovery is impossible, for, indeed, if the symptoms be early observed, and prompt measures had recourse to, before the blood-poisoning have advanced too far, I believe it may and does occur; and the case I shall relate to you, in which recovery followed secondary amputation, is one in point. Youth and vigorous constitution, aided by early removal of the diseased bone, no doubt, were the chief causes of recovery.

"In those cases where collections of pus form external to the cavities, as in the joints, or under the superficial muscles, early evacuation of the pus and careful support by nutrients and stimulants, with change of air and other improvements in the hygienic state of the patient, may bring about recovery, but in cases of oxæmia from osteo-myelitis, the tendency appears to be to cause the visceral changes I have alluded to, and not the more superficial deposits of pus.

"Early amputation, or re-amputation, therefore, is the remedy which offers the best chance of success, and it should be, *not* in the continuity of the affected bone, but either at the next joint, or through the next segment of the limb.

"In M. Roux's hands disarticulation has had the most marked success. It has been with him not only curative, but prophylactic. *Prophylactic*, because knowing the tendency of bone to take on this disease when its cancellated tissue is opened or injured, he avoided this by amputating at the joint.

"The proper time for amputation (or removal of the affected bone) in osteomyelitis is not difficult to determine, for it should be as soon as possible after having ascertained that the bone is so affected, and, as I have said, the diagnosis is made by the constitutional and local symptoms, and by passing a probe into the medulla of the bone. Should it impinge on healthy *bleeding* medulla near the surface you may, if the constitutional symptoms are not urgent, wait and see if nature will limit the suppuration and throw off a ring of diseased bone; such expectations are, in my experience, rarely realized, and the doubt is generally resolved, not in favour of the bone. However, this is one of the nice points of discrimination in the treatment, and for which no absolute rules can be laid down. The constitutional signs, the state of the pulse, respiration, and temperature, would be important indications of the patient's condition, and they cannot be too carefully studied. A pulse exceeding 120, persistent temperature above 104, bronchial rales, hurried respiration, tenderness over the hypochondria, are symptoms that should cause the greatest anxiety on their first appearance, and very speedily decide the fate of the patient or of his limb."

29. *Cancer: a new Method of Treatment, by which Malignant Tumours may be removed with Little Pain or Constitutional Disturbance.*—This is the title of a paper read before the British Medical Association at its late meeting at Chester, by W. H. BROADBENT, M. D. London.

The attention of the author was directed to the treatment of cancer under the following circumstances: In 1864 he was consulted by a lady suffering from cancer of the breast. By his advice, the breast was removed by Mr. Walter Coulson. The disease returned, and was again removed in August, 1865. In May of the present year, a tumour was growing more rapidly than ever near the cicatrices of the former operations. It was decided that no further removal was advisable; and, unless something could be done, a miserable fate was before the patient. The hypodermic syringe is now in the hands of every physician; and it seemed to the author that by it some fluid might be injected into the tumour which might so far alter its structure and modify its nutrition that its growth might be retarded or arrested. After considering the various substances which presented themselves to his notice, he selected acetic acid, for the following reasons: 1. This acid does not coagulate albumen, and might, therefore, be expected to diffuse itself through the tumour; and the effects would not be localized at the point injected. 2. If it entered the circulation, it could do no harm in any way. 3. Acetic acid rapidly dissolves the walls and modifies the nuclei of cells on the microscopic slide, and might be expected to do this when the cells were *in situ*. 4. It had been applied with advantage to common ulcerations. On May 18 the first injection was practised. The tumour was of about the size of a small egg, and a patch of skin of about the size of a shilling had become adherent to it. The needle was introduced through sound skin an inch or more from the part involved in the disease, and passed to the centre of the mass. About thirty minims of dilute acid (one part of acid to one and a-half or two of water) were injected. It gave little or no pain. Next morning a bulla containing dark bloody fluid was found to occupy the patch of adherent skin. May 23: This portion of skin dry, hard, and horny; the adjacent part of the tumour not so hard. Again injected. The patient, residing in the country, was not again seen till June 7, when the piece of skin mentioned was found detached from the surrounding sound skin; and a probe could be passed in all directions to a distance of three-quarters of an inch or more between the tumour and the healthy structures. A little discharge issued from the fissure mentioned. Injected on this date, and again on the 9th, the acid used being rather stronger. It gave a little pain, and swelling and tension of the parts around

followed. On June 13, and a few days afterwards, there was a free discharge of fluid and solid portions, with relief of the swelling, etc. No fetor whatever attended this discharge, which afterwards diminished greatly. Seen again on June 26, when, on external examination, the tumour was found to be much smaller; and, on passing a probe into the opening, it entered a large cavity extending on all sides. Part of the walls seemed free from malignant structure, but at several points a crust of cancerous deposit remained. On attempting to inject, it was found too thin to retain the fluid, which either entered the tissues and gave great pain, or made its way into the cavity. The cavity was stuffed with lint saturated with dilute acid, and the case left in the care of the family medical attendant, who was to inject as he saw opportunity. July 13: No impression made on the remaining disease, which had, in the opinion of the medical man, extended somewhat. Carbolic acid was tried for a few days as an application, but discontinued, and the cavity dressed daily with strong acetic acid by the medical attendant, and injections practised daily. This energetic treatment gave much pain, and excited inflammation all round. When again seen by the author on August 4, there had been considerable hemorrhage, which had been arrested by free application of tincture of sesquichloride of iron. The result, however, was apparently the entire removal of the remains of malignant disease; and, when last seen, a healthy granulating surface was left at every point. Three other cases were related by the author. The author further formulated certain conclusions from the experiments detailed, and stated the cases to which, in his opinion, the treatment was not applicable. Guided by his experience, he considered large quantities of dilute acid preferable to stronger acid; and he would not, without great hesitation, attempt the destruction of any tumour which had not involved the skin. His aim had originally been, as stated in the early part of the paper, not necrosis of malignant tumours, but a modification in their nutrition. The theoretical grounds for this hope were, that cancer owed its malignancy to its cellular (to use a nomenclature now almost antiquated) or foetal structure; and that in acetic acid we had an agent which might be expected to diffuse itself through the tumour and reach the cells, and, having reached them, to effect changes in their structure, and affect them vitally, while it could scarcely do harm. The results he had brought before the profession at the earliest possible moment. The ultimate value of the treatment he left to be decided by a more extended experience. It was important to use large quantities of dilute acid, and not to have the acid too strong.—*Med. Times and Gazette*, Sept. 1, 1866.

30. *Umbilical Hernia*.—M. DEMARQUAY calls attention to the fact of how little attention has been paid to perfecting our procedures in respect to umbilical hernia as compared with the inguinal and femoral forms of the malady. The inefficient manner in which it is supported in children cannot have escaped the observation of every one, and, with few exceptions, matters are still worse with the adult, giving rise, not only to the danger which ensues on strangulation, but also to a variety of gastro-intestinal disturbances. These last at once disappear when a suitable apparatus is applied. By far the best form of this that M. Demarquay has employed consists in a little pyramidal pad formed of very supple vulcanized caoutchouc, and filled with air. The hernia in children can, by the aid of this, be easily retained. When it has to be applied it is affixed to a very supple strip of diachylon, as broad as itself and nearly long enough to surround the body. It should be renewed every day or two after placing the child in a bath, but it can be dried again for future use, and is very cheap. When at the end of some months the hernia has become very small, or has no longer a tendency to come out, the caoutchouc may be replaced by a little ball of wadding. These air caoutchouc pads may also, when properly adapted in size and form, be very advantageously employed in the adult, affording complete relief to the distressing symptoms induced when the hernia is ill-supported. The diachylon strip requires to be proportionally broader, and two smaller strips should lap over it above and below the pad, to keep it *in situ*.

When umbilical hernia becomes strangulated it is a very serious occurrence, most of the patients dying of peritonitis when an operation has been performed

for the relief of the strangulation. This has induced M. Demarquay to consider whether the operation without opening the sac, so often successfully performed for inguinal hernia, should not be preferred. It seems, indeed, pre-eminently suited for this form of hernia, for, first, the ordinary operation, leading to so large an exposure of the abdominal cavity, is usually fatal; and, next, the course of a strangulated umbilical hernia is much slower, with respect to the production of sphacelus, than is the case in inguinal and femoral hernia, there being, in fact, less danger of the intestine becoming divided or ulcerated by contact with the ring. For these reasons, M. Demarquay, quite recently performed the operation in this manner. An incision was carried upwards and outwards from the summit of the tumour, which equalled a large orange in size. Beyond the base of the tumour the incision only implicated the skin. At the base of the hernia, the external portion of the sac having been recognized, a very small puncture was practised in it, through which the end of the finger was passed and the intestine pushed back. This effected, a curved grooved canula was introduced between the intestine and the umbilical ring, the strangulation being relieved by means of an incision of about a centimètre in length made with a falci-form bistoury, directed upwards and outwards. The intestines were left *in situ*, no attempt at their reduction being made. The wound in the skin was brought together by the interrupted suture, and opium was administered in divided doses. For the first twenty-four hours all went on well, when renewed symptoms of strangulation appeared and the patient died. "I found that the cause of death was due to a secondary strangulation, which had been produced by the swelling of all the parts, consequent upon the inflammatory process set up within the cavity of the sac; and I asked myself whether I had not been the involuntary cause of death by not dividing the stricture to a greater extent. I believe this to be the condition of success, and on the next occasion I shall resort to the same procedure, and relieve the strangulation with less timidity. It may not seem very logical that I should recommend an operation which has failed in my hands, but I may observe that, in presence of the inefficiency of our present means of treating strangulated umbilical hernia, it is very desirable that a more efficacious procedure should be sought for, and that in operative medicine we cannot judge of the utility of a procedure from a single case. An operation, however, badly conceived and executed, may sometimes succeed, while a rational one fails. Success is a great thing in surgery, but we must not disdain the investigation of new applications of rational measures when these have for their aim the treatment of an affection almost constantly fatal."—*Brit. and For. Med.-Chir. Rev.*, July, 1866, from *Union Médicale*, No. 33.

31. *Chronic Urethritis*.—M. ALLAIRE terminates an essay upon this subject as follows: 1. It is almost always the result of one or more blennorrhagies. 2. In 90 times out of 100 (in 99 according to Delpech) one or more strictures exist in chronic urethritis. 3. There is a tendency to the formation of stricture after acute urethritis—60 times out of 69 cases, according to M. Marchal. 4. Changes in the surface of the canal are rare, those of the substance of its tissues being much more common. 5. The formation of the fibrous tissue being slow, treatment by dilatation has the better chance of success the sooner it is employed after such transformation and the atrophy of the normal tissues. 6. The seat of stricture is generally in front of the membranous portion. 7. In the great majority of cases cauterization, even when superficial, urethrotomy, permanent dilatation, and forced dilatation, should be rejected. 8. Rapidly repeated dilatation (*coup-sur-coup*) should only be employed where the strictures are easily dilated, and when the canal presents but little sensibility. 9. Gradual and temporary dilatation should be almost exclusively resorted to, and under its employment accidents either do not take place at all or are very rare and of short duration. 10. Strictures may be radically cured. 11. To compass this the normal calibre of the urethra must be exaggerated, and sometimes the meatus requires to be divided. 12. Bougies must be introduced from time to time during several weeks. 13. A bougie must be passed once a day, and immediately withdrawn, increasing the size progressively from one sixth to one half a millimètre. The bougie must be passed in gently, so as to give as little pain as possible; and when

there is strong contractility manifested by the stricture we should pause for a few seconds, and press with the end of the bougie, which will then pass much more easily. It is often of great importance to pass the instrument while the patient is in a bath. 15. The bladder should be penetrated into, or the stricture passed only to the extent of two centimètres. 16. When any accident arises—such as febrile paroxysms, cystitis, profuse discharge, articular pains, loss of semen, &c.—the dilatation should be suspended. The flow of blood at the commencement does not call for this precaution. 17. Baths or sitting baths should be employed after each *séance*, especially at first. 18. Copaiba, injections, &c., should be abstained from. 19. A metallic instrument should be introduced for several days at the end of the treatment. 20. The duration of the treatment varies greatly; but while a case may be sometimes cured in from eight to twenty days, as a general rule, a month or six weeks is required. 21. When No. 14 or 15 bougie (equivalent to eight and eight and a half millimètres) can be introduced, the discharge will ordinarily stop of itself in the course of a fortnight, without the use of injections.—*Brit. and For. Med.-Chir. Rev.*, July, 1866, from *de Mémoires de Méd. et de Chirurg. Militaire*, Dec.

32. *Treatment of Wounds by Ventilation.*—M. BÉRENGER-FÉRAUD draws attention to a mode of treating wounds and ulcers described by M. Bouisson of Montpellier in the second volume of his *Tribut à la Chirurgie*, under the name of ventilation. This consists in fact in leaving small wounds exposed to the air, and in acting upon larger ones by means of the domestic bellows for a period varying from five to twenty minutes every two, three, or four hours, according to the amount of discharge and moisture that may be present. The object is to secure the formation of a crust over the surface of the wound, under which cicatrization takes place far more rapidly than when the surface is not so protected; and the applications must be sufficiently frequent and prolonged to maintain this crust of a certain thickness. When the crust acquires a degree of rigidity, however, it must be displaced and another formed; and when the discharge is very abundant, the alcoholic dressings, now so much in vogue in the Paris hospitals, should for a while precede the ventilation. The influence of this last in improving the condition of the wounds is almost immediate, a disposition to cicatrize and a diminution of the discharge soon being apparent.

This mode of treatment, according to its originator, M. Bouisson, may determine sedative, astringent, siccative, antiseptic, and tonic action; but it is by no means indicated in all kinds of wounds, and especially in those whose depth is great in proportion to their superficial extent. Thus, it is not fitted for penetrating wounds, as those of a fistulous character, or characterized by anfractuosités. Abundant suppuration is a further contra-indication, except, indeed, when this is due to a mere hyper-secretion dependent upon local or general atony or perverted nutrition, and to the lessening of which alcoholic dressings supply a useful preliminary to the employment of ventilation. In slight burns other means may be preferable, as of more convenient application; but in those of the second and third degree, arrived at the stage of a simple denuded wound, ventilation may advantageously supersede cotton and other impermeable applications. In resorting to this means for ulcers, we have to attend to the constitutional cause of these, as well as to render them by various local applications apt for cicatrization before we resort to ventilation.

Among the secondary advantages of this mode of treatment may be mentioned its simplicity, its easy applicability by the patient or his friends, its economy and its cleanliness. It substitutes a dry for a moist surface, diminishes the chances of septic decomposition, and lessens the chances of infection of the surrounding atmosphere.—*Brit. and For. Med.-Chir. Rev.*, July, 1866, from *Bull. Gén. de Recueil Thérap.*, Jan. 31, 1866.

33. *Successful Amputation at the Hip-joint on account of Malignant Tumour of the Femur.*—MR. JAMES SPENCE maintains that the true principle in regard to amputation for malignant tumours of bone is to ampute beyond the bone affected, and that this is true even where the disease is seated in the femur. He relates (*Edinburgh Medical Journal*, Nov. 1865) the following case in point,

the second in which he has amputated at the hip-joint for malignant growth of the femur, with success :—

“M. W., aged 5 years, was admitted on May 29, 1865, into the Royal Infirmary, suffering from a tumour of the right thigh.

“*History.*—Patient’s mother states, that about six months previous to admission the child complained occasionally of wandering pains in the right thigh, for which fomentations were applied. About three months previous to admission, however, the mother observed the patient walking as if her right knee was stiff; she had a considerable amount of pain in the limb; was sometimes fretful and low-spirited, but her general health was good. On being asked where she had pain, the patient referred it to various parts of the thigh; and on examining locally, the mother observed an oval lump on the outside of the lower part of the thigh, about the size of a “blackbird’s egg,” and said to be deeply seated. No increase of growth was observed, however, till about ten weeks before admission, when the child is said to have received a blow on the lower part of the thigh (with a chair), and since that time the tumour has been increasing rapidly. Since then, the patient has also complained greatly of pains in the limb, on account of which the part has been fomented, poulticed, and leeches, without any relief. The parents then consulted Dr. Thomson, of Yetholm, who, recognizing the nature of the case, prevailed upon them to send her to the Infirmary. During the past few days, the patient has been losing her appetite, is low-spirited and complains more of pains.

“*On admission into hospital.*—Patient appears to be healthy, but is unusually quiet and reserved. Tongue slightly furred; lungs, heart, and other organs, normal. A tumour, of oval form, $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length, and about the same in breadth, was found occupying the anterior, outer, and posterior surfaces of the middle and lower part of the femur, just above the condyles. It is of firm consistence throughout, and movable along with the femur. The superficial veins are enlarged, but the skin is not adherent. Patient does not complain of pain on pressing the tumour. The inguinal glands on both sides, as also the right cervical glands, are hard, and somewhat enlarged.

“*1st June.*—P. 86. Sleeps well, and is much better in health. Ordered alterative medicine, followed by tincture of the muriate of iron and cod-liver oil, twice daily.

“*6th.*—P. 96. Has had more darting pains in the limb. General health continues good. Tumour not perceptibly larger since admission of patient into hospital.

“*7th.*—P. 80. Slept well. Chloroform having been administered. Professor Spence made an exploratory incision into the swelling, and discovered it to be a tumour, as diagnosed. The patient’s pelvis was then brought well over the edge of the table, and held firmly by an assistant. Professor Spence next, grasping the soft parts with his left hand, entered the point of the knife at the front of the ischial tuberosity, and passing it obliquely upwards in front of the articulation, brought it out almost midway between the anterior superior iliac spine and the trochanter major, so as to form a large anterior flap. Having opened the joint by the first incision, while Dr. Gillespie abducted the limb, the disarticulation was effected, and a posterior flap nearly equal in size to the anterior one was cut from within outwards. Immediately thereafter, a sponge was applied over the posterior flap; Dr. Watson compressed the vessels over the brim of the pelvis. The vessels, including the femoral vein, were then ligatured, the flaps stitched together, pads placed over the anterior and posterior surfaces, and bandaged. When the effects of the chloroform had passed off, an opiate was given, but the patient continued very restless, requiring to be held down for some time. No reactionary hemorrhage took place.

“On examining the limb, the tumour was found to be of a grayish colour, of firm consistence, and of a medullary character. Microscopic examination of the adductor muscles of the thigh showed the nuclei of the muscular fibres to be greatly increased in number, and seemingly about to undergo cancerous degeneration. The fibres of the gluteus muscle showed fatty degeneration, but no proliferous cells.”

It is unnecessary to give the details of the course of the cure; it is sufficient

to say that the next morning after the operation, the patient seemed to be rapidly sinking, but by the prompt use of external and internal stimuli, and careful watching, the patient was sustained, and by the 25th of the month convalescence set in and continued uninterrupted. The femoral ligature was withdrawn July 6, and the incision healed without the slightest bad sign.

34. *Syme's Amputation of the Foot*.—MR. HENRY HANCOCK, in his lectures "on the Anatomy and Surgery of the Human Foot" (*Lancet*, July 21, 1866), gives a table of 219 cases of Syme's operation, exclusive of those performed by Syme himself.

"Of these 144 were performed for caries.

"	22	"	"	accident.
"	2	"	"	gunshot wounds.
"	1	"	"	hypertrophy.
"	1	"	"	malignant disease.
"	1	"	"	necrosis.
"	1	"	"	frost-bite.
"	1	"	"	traumatic gangrene.
"	1	"	"	acute inflammation.
"	44	diseases not stated.		

Results.

13 suffered secondary amputation.

17 died.

183 recovered, and could walk well.

6, results not stated.

"Of the 13 amputations—in 8 the period between Syme's operation and secondary amputation is not stated; in 2, two months; in 1, four months, and in 2, two years intervened between the two operations. Nine of the amputations were performed upon patients who had undergone the primary Syme's operation for caries, and of these one was a confirmed drunkard, one patient had been primarily operated upon for traumatic gangrene, one two years previously for accident, and in the remaining two the disease is not stated.

"Of the 17 fatal cases, 4 died of pyæmia; of these, one had been operated upon for malignant disease, one for accident, one for gunshot wound, and in the fourth the primary disease is not stated. In 5 the operation had been performed for accident, one of the patients dying of pyæmia, as already stated. In 10 the operation had been performed for caries; of these, 1 died twelve months after the operation, 3 died of phthisis, and 1 died of exhaustion caused by diarrhoea.

"These are the results of this operation performed in civil practice; and they must be regarded as most favourable, especially when we consider that it has been restricted neither to classes, sex, nor age. Of the 219 cases, the ages have ranged from one to sixty-four years (although we read that Mr. Syme operated upon an infant aged five months), the youngest, as we have seen, having been operated upon by Mr. Pemberton, of Birmingham; whilst Mr. Marsden and Mr. Gant, of the Royal Free Hospital, and Mr. Nesbitt, of Wolverhampton, can claim the credit of having performed this operation successfully on the three oldest patients hitherto submitted to its procedure.

"In military practice it would seem to be equally successful. Staff Surgeon Gordon, of the 95th regiment, which suffered so severely at the battle of the Alma, thus writes to Mr. Syme: 'I have much pleasure in stating that several cases of amputation of the foot, as first proposed and practised by you, were performed after the battle of the Alma, and the results were most favourable. Those cases which came under my observation healed more rapidly than when the operation was performed at the lower third of the leg, and at the same time a much more useful stump was the result.'"

35. *Mercurial Collodion in the Removal of Syphilitic Patches of Discoloration*.—M. LECLERC states in the *Presse Médicale Belge*, that a patient of his having tried alkaline, vapour, and sea-baths for the removal of those patches

which appear on the skin of syphilitic patients without effect, he recommended her to apply the following lotion, which removed them in a few days : Corrosive sublimate, fifty centigrammes ; collodion, fifteen grammes.—*Lancet*, June 9, 1866.

OPHTHALMOLOGY.

36. *Employment of Anæsthetic Agents during Operations on the Eye.*—In this paper, M. WECKER considers three points: 1. What are the real inconveniences in the employment of anæsthetics in ocular surgery? 2. What are the operations in which such employment is useful and legitimate? 3. Which is the anæsthetic agent that should be preferred? With respect to the inconveniences attendant upon the employment of anæsthetics, M. Wecker agrees with Professor Jacobson, of Königsberg, in the belief that most of these are due to the timidity with which they are administered, large doses capable of producing absolute muscular resolution being necessary in delicate operations on the eye. Still, he observes, it must be remembered that Jacobson practises in a region where, the use of alcoholic drinks being much more general, larger quantities of chloroform are admissible than they would be in warmer or more temperate climates. The production of obstinate vomiting, either during or immediately after the operation, has been attributed to the employment of chloroform; but, as Jacobson truly observes, such vomiting is never so sudden in its appearance as to take the operator by surprise, and that the eye may always be protected from its injurious influence by supporting it with a little charpie held in the hollow of the hand. The compressing bandage, the use of which is indispensable after most operations on the eye, sufficiently protects the organ during any efforts at vomiting which may then take place. To say the least, the objections against the use of anæsthetics have been exaggerated. Among the operations for which they are especially indicated are those in which all violent contraction of the muscles of the eye and eyelids may be the cause or immediate accident, in which the globe of the eye is largely opened. The flap operation for extraction of cataract here occupies the first place; and it is necessary to have performed a great number of extractions; but with the aid of and without the anæsthetic, in order to be able to appreciate how much, in the former case, the section of the flap is facilitated, and how much less trouble the operator experiences in giving to it the exact size and position. And if these are not considered as sufficient inducements to resort to anæsthetics, they will still be found valuable auxiliaries at the moment when it is sought to give issue to the cataract; for, in a subject who has been completely anæsthetized, and when the flap in the cornea has been sufficiently extensive, prolapsus of the vitreous humour, even to the slightest extent, may be prevented. Of this M. Wecker has fully assured himself by having in a great number of cases been able to effect extraction of the lens without opening the capsule, by merely sliding a curette under it, and without any loss of the humour. In fact, when all the muscles of the eye are in a condition of relaxation, and when, after the incision has been made, all intra-ocular pressure has ceased, the vitreous body has no tendency to escape, anæsthetics thus reducing to nothing one of the chief dangers of this operation. Thanks to them, also, all operations become practicable on the youngest children, rendering superfluous the various complicated apparatus which have been invented to fix the head in subjects of this age. We have no longer to dread, as heretofore, that the cries of these little patients will induce hernia of the iris, if, before the anæsthetic influence has passed off, we apply over the eye a sufficiently firm compress. Of course, anæsthetics are just as much indicated in painful operations on the eyelids, enucleation of the eyeball, &c., as in most other surgical operations.

As in operations which themselves cause no danger to life the safest anæsthetics are the most eligible, M. Wecker gives the decided preference to chemically pure rectified ether at 60°, which, indeed, for some time past, he has exclu-

sively employed. He regards the objections to this—that it requires more time to produce anaesthesia, and never renders it complete as quite unfounded—when the ether employed is pure, and is from the first inhaled in very large quantities. The ether he employs comes direct from New York, and the patient is encouraged to inhale it as deeply as possible, disregarding the slight cough that is at first produced. The effect is produced almost as rapidly as with chloroform, while the resolution is so complete that extraction without opening the capsule can be readily performed. Moreover, the surgeon proceeds with an amount of security he can never possess when chloroform is employed to the extent of producing the complete resolution that is necessary for operations on the eye. When chloroform is employed, moreover, the inhalations have to be interrupted at the various stages of the operations, while with ether they may be proceeded with continuously to the very end, avoiding the sudden rousing up, and the dangerous irregular movements which may follow. Ether, then, should be exclusively employed in operations upon the eye.—*Brit. and For. Med.-Chir. Rev.*, July, 1866, from *Bull. Gén. de Thérap.*, May 30.

37. *Von Graefe's Treatment of Cataract.* By A. SAMELSON, M. D.—According to VON GRAEFE'S experience, diabetes is of much more frequent occurrence in cases of cataract than appears to be generally received. He does not in his practice regard immaturity as an essential obstacle to the removal of cataract. The retrogressive condition of the latter is by him considered much more to darken the prospect of thorough success; and a form which he appears prognostically to dread more than any other is that of posterior cortical cataract, from its being mostly accompanied by other and more serious morbid changes. Among the local circumstances of inauspicious significance, it is especially the small-sized cornea which is looked upon with misgiving. In capsulo-lenticular cataract, the opaque capsule is pretty frequently removed by itself, immediately before the extraction of the lens. As regards instruments, in the bent cystotome, with its fleam, in the one specimen looking to the right, in the other to the left, we saw a most useful auxiliary for upwards extraction. The curette preferred for most purposes is a curved spoon, the construction of which is a sort of compromise between Waldauf's and Critchett's instruments. Repeated introduction of the curette into the anterior chamber, which has here always been held in abhorrence, is most religiously abstained from. A very light but efficient kind of manacles, consisting of two firm bands, an inch wide, buttoned about the wrists, and fastened by a tape to the foot-end of the bed, is employed after cataract-extraction, to ward off injury by the patient's own hands.

A proceeding which seems to be in special favour with Von Graefe, and which we have witnessed in a pretty large number of cases, is the formation of what he calls a *diametral pupil*. This is obtained by superadding an upward iridectomy, mostly just before the act of extraction, to the iridectomy downwards performed some weeks previously; or *vice versa*, as the case may be. A large vertical gap is, in eyes thus operated upon, seen to replace the former pupil. The proceeding is pointed out as the best means for thorough extinction of the action of the sphincter. It is needless to say that the plan is not wantonly adopted, but only resorted to in suitable cases. It appeared to us as a thing very apt to be carpied at; but remembering, as we do, those unfortunate cases of extreme vulnerability occasionally met with in cataractous eyes, in which such a measure is most likely to prevent mischief, we think that others, remembering as much, will probably become not only lenient critics, but thankful imitators too. We give the following case. The patient had had extraction performed on his left eye. The imperfect result was ascribed to the influence of syphilis, which had not entirely left the system at the time of the operation. The right eye, now about to be operated upon, had likewise been the subject of iritis, as a residue of which, a synechial band appeared skirting the top of the large gap which appeared within the lower half of the iris, the production of a first iridectomy. A second and equally extensive one was now superadded, whereupon the capsule was dilacerated, and the cataractous lens attempted to be removed with the spoon. It issued in two parts, which, put together, showed the nucleus

and the cortex immediately surrounding it to have come away complete. Much remaining surface-matter, however, was gradually expelled by pressure on the sclerotic with the spoon. The adhesion referred to had, in the act of dilaceration, been torn across with the sharp hook which, in this case, was preferred to the cystitome. Whenever the eye happens to jerk whilst the spoon is being introduced, the caution is observed and enjoined, quickly to follow the movements of the former, as the only chance of avoiding rupture of the hyaloid fossa.

Very exceptionally only, and then for the most part at the urgent desire of the patient, extraction is performed on both eyes in one sitting. We were told by Professor von Graefe himself of the case of a high dignitary, in which the faultless progress of the operation on one eye induced him forthwith to extract the lens from the other; this was equally accomplished without a hitch, when, nevertheless, both eyes were lost, so far as regards useful vision, by speedily supervening suppuration—an event which, manifestly arising from systematic causes, could not further be accounted for but by this vague assumption. On the other hand, we witnessed ourselves a most successful bilateral extraction in a Swedish parson, some 60 years old, of commanding presence, who, loth to extend his stay or undertake the long journey a second time, insisted upon having both eyes operated upon in immediate succession. Another case of bilateral operation, for congenital cataract, in a child, was the following. On the left eye, linear extraction from the outer side was resorted to; the iris prolapsed; dilaceration was effected with the hook; the capsule was found tough, and but very little lenticular substance was present, which, too, could not be completely evacuated. By dint of friction on the closed eyelids, the iris returned; but the pupil, noways duly black, did not quite resume its former regularity either. After this, dissection, freely performed, was the method chosen for the left eye. Here, from a likewise very tough capsule, a much larger quantity of lenticular matter came forth, which now pressed the iris forward into the anterior chamber. Before the case was dismissed from the couch, a piece of iris was excised from the right eye.

Perhaps, further, of some interest are the following three cases of unilateral extraction. In the first, a middle-aged man, the operation was performed on the left eye, and, as usual, without chloroform. In this case, owing to the patient exerting his orbicularis muscle just at the most critical moment, some vitreous humour, though but a very moderate amount, escaped; and the pupil could not entirely be freed from cortical masses. The case, though not an extraordinary one, was instructive, in the operator's own opinion, as showing the usefulness of chloroform, if time will permit of its employment. The next case is that of a noble lady, of 65 years of age, whose left eye had, at the hands of an eminent German professor of ophthalmology, undergone the operation of iridectomy for glaucoma, in the course of which—chloroform not being used, which Von Graefe likewise but exceptionally employs in glaucoma—the capsule was injured. The traumatic cataract thus produced afforded evidence of the unmanageableness of the patient, whose case was beforehand pointed out to us as a most unpromising one. Before the anæsthetic told upon her, she gave continual vent to her anguish. A large upward iridectomy was made; and the capsule, although accessible from the original injury, was expressly dilacerated afresh. While inserting the spoon, the operator called our attention to this as the critical moment. The nucleus, together with a moderate quantity of cortical substance, came away, but was immediately succeeded by some vitreous humour; the play of the orbicularis just supervening when the cataract made its exit. Thorough narcosis had, again, not been induced. In this case, the operator held that the zonula had been ruptured before the operation. Only a scanty amount of vitreous humour, however, had escaped. The corneal wound was well adapted; but the pupil was not quite black, because occupied by blood. Several times the eyelids were now widely separated, and the patient directed to look downwards, which did not lead to any further escape of vitreous humour. The right eye of the patient was the seat of chronic glaucoma, with a contracted field of vision; whilst in the left eye the visual field was normal; and on that account the operation was ventured upon. The case did well. In the third case, one of accidental cataract in a youth, in which chloroform was dispensed

with, a glistening foreign body became visible after dilaceration and the escape of some soft lenticular substance. The foreign body was, together with some more solid cataractous matter, very carefully removed by the spoon, and the pupil remained perfectly clear.

In the hospital, I saw still a female patient, operated on before I arrived, with a pupil partly occupied by capsular remains, in the cataract extracted from whose eye a *cysticercus* had been found by Von Graefe—an occurrence of which we hear that no instance has yet been recorded.

We have seen every method of operation for cataract which is still in use practised at the Clinique, except, of course, reclination and depression; and we may perhaps add, except the method of Jacobson, as chiefly characterized by the induction of thorough chloroform narcosis prior to the steps of the operation. But what we have likewise failed to witness within the space of more than four months at Von Graefe's clinique is even a single case of flap-extraction. To account for this, at first sight, certainly very strange omission, we have to enter on the exposition of a method of operation recently excogitated and practised by Von Graefe, which, it is our belief, will be very generally appreciated, and, if approved by experience, form another solid accession to the wealth of ophthalmic surgery. At the last meeting of the Ophthalmological Congress at Heidelberg, Von Graefe has, we hear, made a communication on the subject; a substantial treatise on which will be published in the forthcoming volume of the *Archiv für Ophthalmologie*.¹ We have been fortunate enough to witness, as it were, the incubation of the new method; attend at its first trials; and observe its gradual perfection and thorough establishment. When we had witnessed at the clinique a number of cases subjected to modified linear extraction, performed advisedly in strict accordance with the practice and precepts of Critchett and Bowman, we heard Professor von Graefe broach the idea—to throw or fling (as he colloquially expressed it) the lens out of the eye without the intervention of the cumbersome and anything but inoffensive spoon. Within less than a fortnight after this, we found him supplied with the instruments in his opinion requisite for the realization of his idea. Thus provided for, proceedings commenced; and by rapid degrees perfecting and completing his armoury, in the course of about three months (at the end of which the long vacation set in) he had performed the new plan upwards of sixty times, at about forty of which we had the good fortune to be an intensely interested spectator. We have thus seen the hand of the operator, in the execution of a novel act, become more and more firm, until it had attained to the freedom habitually attending his surgical handiwork. During the first period of trial, we frequently heard him remind the bystanders that what they were witnessing were yet "*des essais*." As regards the nature of the cases, perhaps only the first half of them were specially selected for the purpose. The object being a thorough and extensive trial of the merits of the new scheme, very soon every description of cataract, which else would have fallen within the scope of either flap or spoon-extraction, was subjected to the new proceeding. In this, the administration of chloroform was but seldom deemed necessary.

The steps of the operation, as performed in my presence, were as follows: The eyelids having been separated by the stop wire retractor, and the conjunctiva at the bottom of the cornea seized with toothed forceps, the point of the knife devised by Dr. Waldau for the removal of prolapsed iris, the edge looking upwards, is inserted in the sclerotic, at the distance of half a line from the margin of the cornea and about half a line below the plane of its vertex. When the point has been moved straight on so far as to appear in the anterior chamber, it is directed downwards, and pushed on towards the pupil. As soon as the point is seen above the pupil, it is advanced in an upward direction until it has reached the spot directly opposite in a straight line to that where it first appeared in the anterior chamber; carried onwards a little further, it is made to emerge through the sclerotic at the same distance as its insertion was from the cornea. The knife is now pushed on in an horizontal direction towards the

¹ The paper has since appeared, and a translation of it is in course of publication in the *Ophthalmic Review*.

great angle, until its edge has entirely cut through the corneo-scleral junction, when it is turned edge forward to divide the wall of conjunctiva which is still before it. For, the incision falling quite in the limbus corneæ, and often, we believe, lying altogether in the sclerotic, causes the conjunctiva to rise above the knife as if distended by emphysema, and thus a conjunctival flap to be formed. More or less bleeding, sometimes considerable, from the conjunctiva, is the immediate consequence. The length of the incision, according to Von Graefe's measurement on the dead subject, is from four and a half to five lines—*i. e.*, somewhat larger than any which can be produced by the largest lance-knife as employed in the Moorfields method; moreover, the course of the incision is more strictly linear than that of any obtainable by the lance-shaped knife. The next step in the operation is the laying down with iris-forceps of the conjunctival flap over the top of the cornea, in order to fully expose the incision. Thereupon the hand of the assistant glides under that of the operator to take hold of the fixing forceps, whilst the surgeon now seizes a pair of delicate forceps and scissors to remove a moderate piece of iris. This done, and the fixing forceps having been resumed by the operator, he clears the pupil, if necessary, from blood effused in front of it, lacerates the capsule extensively with the curved cystitome, and mostly endeavours to effect the exit of the cataract by gentle pressure with a Daviel's curette on the sclerotic above the incision. If this remain unsuccessful, he pushes a bent hook on the flat about two lines deep into the posterior cortex, whereupon the point of the hook is turned forwards, and, by a slight upward movement of the instrument, the cataractous lens is lifted out of the wound. This being accomplished, the fixing forceps and retractor are expeditiously removed from the eye. After a moment's waiting, the eyelids are again separated by the hands of the surgeon; and whatever is found to remain of cortical substance in the pupil, is, by alternate sliding over the globe of the upper and lower lids, made to issue as completely as possible. The reversed conjunctival flap having been returned to its original position, and the wound cleared by forceps of the filamentous coagulum which is very generally found to overlie it, the eye is closed and dressed with the protective bandage. The after-treatment does not in any respect differ from that generally observed after extraction. Of the three hooks in progress of time devised for the removal of the lens, the sharp one, calculated to penetrate into the nucleus, is but seldom called in use; the object of the new plan being rather to promote the gliding of the lens, if possible, by mere external pressure, than to draw it out of the wound. Again, of the two blunt hooks, the one presenting some surface, though differing in its mode of action from the sharp hook, is yet, for the same reason, but rarely employed; so that there remains only the blunt hook which is slender throughout as the instrument ordinarily used in lieu of the discarded curette. It is needless to say that, in the event of rupture of the hyaloid fossa, resulting in the escape of vitreous humour before the removal of the cataract, extraction is nevertheless insisted upon. It is then effected with the necessary despatch by means of the spoon.

Of the sixty operations before referred to, not one was an utter failure—*i. e.*, ending in the entire loss of vision; though we cannot doubt the success obtained in the various cases must have varied in degree. According to recent news, Von Graefe has performed upwards of one hundred operations on the new plan; and amongst this total, there are no more than five or six cases requiring an after-operation, the remainder having furnished quite satisfactory results. The advantage of the proceeding appeared, in Von Graefe's view, mainly to consist in the precisely linear character and the peripheral situation of the incision, enhanced in value by its considerable length, and further by its subconjunctival position. As a point of much importance, in regard to the immediate consequences, we have heard him state that the prejudicial proliferation of the intracapsular cells, so habitually observed after scoop-extraction, appeared to be in a great measure discountenanced by the new proceeding.

As regards the technical steps of the latter, various points are, according to Von Graefe's own admission, borrowed from the proceedings of others—*viz.*, Desmarres and Jacobson. What we know to be original is the mode of performing the incision on the one hand, and the suppression of the obnoxious

spoon by the less offensive hook on the other. We have endeavoured to describe the operation as we have seen it performed. It may be and is not unlikely to have been modified in various points since. As the coming year will see the new method put to the test far and wide, the voice of the profession will ere long begin to be heard on its merits.¹—*Reminiscences of Four Months' Stay with Prof. A. Von Graefe in Berlin, in Brit. Med. Journ., April 21, 1866.*

38. *Detachment of the Retina ; its Causes and Treatment.*—MR. HAYNES WALTON, in a paper read before the Harveian Society, of London, observed that " Detachment of the retina from the choroid might be the result of an accident, such as a blow on the eyeball or about the orbit ; but for the most part, it could not be traced to an injury. It was the physical effect of fluid effusions of various natures, chiefly, however, serous, or of firm solid deposits, or of malignant disease. It was the class of cases produced only by the pouring out of serum, 'dropsy under the retina,' that he should consider. This separation of the ocular tunics was of common occurrence, and was one of the greatest mechanical changes that occurred in the eye, and yet was one without any external or objective symptoms. It was only by an ophthalmoscopic examination that the true nature of the case could be made out. There were undulating folds of the retina, or bulging of the retina in a tense form, the colour of the membrane varying from a light bluish or grayish tint, to a dead white, which was characteristic of old detachment. The recognition of the retinal vessels removed doubt of the diagnosis. The detachment might be partial, destroying sight to a limited degree, or general, totally annihilating vision. The tendency in the affection was always to become worse, so that a worse class of cases could not occur. There was no opportunity for the natural reparative power. It was Mr. Walton's conviction, however, that there was scope for treatment and opportunity for success ; and that this consisted in general and local measures ; but the treatment should be commenced early, or little benefit could be expected. He deprecated the idea that a mere operative proceeding could be curative, dwelt on the pathology of the affection, and showed that it was the result of morbid actions taking place within the eye, of an inflammatory nature, and mostly of an asthenic form. The retina and the choroid being but slightly connected, there was little or no resistance to extravasation, which quickly gravitated from one part to another. The separation of the retina after an accident he explained in the the same way, there being first, the inflammation and then the exudations between the retina and choroid. It was characteristic of the affection to proceed painlessly, and without any other symptom but that of impaired vision, the peculiarities of which were carefully pointed out. A remarkable case was given in illustration. A patient was brought to Mr. Walton with detached retina in one eye of old standing, and inflammation of the interior of the other eyeball producing among its effects haziness of the vitreous humour, so that the fundus of the eye could not be seen. After general treatment the vitreous humour cleared, the shreds and floating particles in it gradually disappearing, and there was discovered partial detachment of the retina. With all this morbid action in the interior of the eye, there was not the slightest trace of disease in any of the external tissues. This was just the kind of case, Mr. Walton said, that he had been looking for. In the one eye certain conditions had been developed, that left, as one at least of its effects, a separated retina ; in the other, was to be seen that intensity of internal action, which, in all probability, was a parallel of what had taken place in the first, and which in the end separated the retina. He operated on both eyes, and evacuated the subretinal fluid. He found it necessary to operate a second time on the eye recently affected, at the interval of a month, having up to that period still continued the general treatment,

¹ From a communication received a month since, I learn that, in his last fifty cases, Professor von Graefe has been able entirely to dispense with the hook, effecting the removal of the cataract by mere external pressure (the so-called "slide-manceuvre"). Chloroform had of late been hardly employed at all in the operation, and escape of vitreous humour occurred in five or six per cent. of the cases only.

which consisted of small doses of mercury with hyoseyamus, and a mixture of iodide of potassium with cinchona. The result was, in the eye with the acute disease, the restoration of useful vision. In that which had been attacked two years before, no benefit ensued. Mr. Walton gave a detailed account of his method of operating, which was by puncturing the sclerotic and leaving the retina untouched, the fluid escaping between the sclerotic and conjunctiva. He assigned several reasons for preferring this to puncturing the retina with an endeavour to cause the effused fluid to escape in the vitreous humour, as practised by the Germans. He gave the general result of many cases in which he had adopted this simple treatment. In the mass of them no benefit resulted, and indeed he expected little, because they were chronic cases. In some recent cases, however, he had not the slightest doubt of having an amount of useful vision."—*Brit. Med. Journ.*, June 16, 1866.

39. *Spontaneous Effusion of Blood into the Vitreous Humour.*—Mr. R. H. McKEAND relates (*Brit. Med. Journ.*, June 16, 1866) the following example of a very rare accident.

W. F., aged 35, entered the Manchester Eye Hospital, October 9, 1865. He said he went blind suddenly with the left eye, about four days previously, the sight having been always good in both eyes previously. He first noticed something black passing across the eye, and thought that some coal-dust had got into it. A few hours afterwards it went quite dark, and when admitted he could only read No. 20 (Jæger's test type). On ophthalmoscopic examination large quantities of blood were seen floating about the vitreous humour. He was ordered three grains of hydrargyrum cum cretâ in a pill; two to be taken three times a day.

Oct. 16. The mercurial was stopped on account of its action on the gums. Nothing else was ordered. The eye was greatly improved.

25th. The eye was quite well; he could read No. 1 at the normal distance (twelve inches). Ophthalmoscopic examination showed nothing abnormal. He was discharged cured.

Remarks.—When first seen, both eyes presented the same healthy appearance externally, both pupils acting simultaneously to light. No mischief could be detected until he was placed under the ophthalmoscope, when its character was at once revealed. He had received no blow, and could assign no cause for the sudden defect of vision.

40. *Nyctalopia.*—Dr. F. E. JUNKER states (*Med. Times and Gaz.*, July 21, 1866) that "in low marshy localities, where ague and other malarial fevers are prevalent, when cool nights succeed hot days in the tropics as well as in more temperate climates, cases of night-blindness are met with either in its genuine form or with intermittent fever. I shall here speak only of the former. In such cases I found the retina slightly discoloured, and the vitreous humour somewhat cloudy-opaque. The patients are generally persons from the poorer classes, ill-fed, and badly housed, living close to banks of rivers, near marshes, and artificially irrigated fields. I have seen cases of this form of nyctalopia in the rice-fields of Lombardy, on the Chagres River in the Isthmus of Panama, in Nicaragua, on the Tampico in Mexico, and on the low banks of the Essequibo in Demerara. In the latter country I found European settlers and Chinese and Bengalee coolies among the sufferers; negroes appear to be exempt—at least I never heard of any case amongst them. I hear also from good authorities that such cases occur in the neighbourhood of the two Hungarian lakes, on the banks of the lower Danube and the Theiss, and in the Pontine marshes. I recollect having seen a few cases among the outdoor patients of the Ophthalmic Clinic, at Vienna, who came from a village on a small island of the Danube. In the treatment of this complaint we possess an almost specific remedy in camphor. Three five-grain doses of it daily seldom failed, except in old cases combined with ague, when quinine was resorted to."

41. *Removal of the Lachrymal Gland for the Radical Cure of Inveterate Cases of Lachrymal Abscess.*—Dr. J. Z. LAURENCE, in a communication presented to the British Medical Association at its late meeting, stated that he did

not claim priority of the practice, for P. Bernard performed the operation twenty years ago. Still it had not been systematically pursued. The first case in which Mr. Laurence extirpated the lachrymal gland was that of a young man whose eye constantly watered, from the lachrymal puncta and canaliculi having been obliterated by caustic soda. After fruitless efforts had been made to restore the perviability of the canaliculi, Mr. Laurence removed the lachrymal gland. The result was highly satisfactory. Within four days, the watering of the eye had entirely ceased, and it was not unduly dry. Six months after the operation, the patient was again seen, and the relief was found to be permanent. The facility and success of the operation stimulated Mr. Laurence to inquire how far it was applicable to cases of inveterate lachrymation generally. In the prosecution of this inquiry, Mr. Laurence had removed nine lachrymal glands in eight cases, which he reported in detail. It would be sufficient, however, to notice here the results which had followed the operation. The principal symptoms in each case had been constant watering of the eye, repeated lachrymation, abscess and fistula of the sac. The duration of the disease varied from one to twenty-five years. In most instances, the ordinary treatment of probes had been ineffectually tried. After removal of the lachrymal gland in these cases, the disappearance of the watering of the eyes was immediate and permanent, as far as Mr. Laurence's observations extended, some of which had lasted for a period of six months. It did not appear that the operation had caused any undue dryness of the eye; but in every case it had remained normally moist after the operation. Mr. Laurence remarked, that another consequence of removal of the lachrymal gland for abscess of the sac was, that the abscess healed, and the discharge of pus from the puncta ceased. Mr. Laurence considered removal of the lachrymal gland applicable to those cases of inveterate lachrymal fistula which other methods, after a fair trial, have failed to cure; the operation offering the best prospect of a radical and permanent cure. Mr. Laurence concluded by a description of his method of performing the operation. He makes a transverse incision of three-fourths of an inch in length into the orbit over the upper and outer third of the orbital edge; he then divides the external commissure of the lids with scissors; and, by connecting the outer ends of the two incisions, forms a triangular flap, which is thrown up. The lachrymal gland is thus easily exposed, secured by a sharp hook, drawn forwards, and removed. The edges of the wound are then united by sutures. The linear scar of the incision is inappreciable, it being lost in the folds of the upper eyelid.—*Med. Times and Gazette*, Sept. 1, 1866.

MIDWIFERY.

42. *Dilatation of the Perineum*.—Dr. JAMES MORE relates (*Edinburgh Med. Journ.*, June, 1866) the following case to show that the perineal structure possesses an inherent power of dilatation:—

On the 7th July I was asked to attend Mrs. L., about to be confined of her first child, and on examination found the head very high up, and almost out of reach. The pains were good and regular from the first; but finding, after waiting some hours, that the head did not descend, indeed seemed fixed, I again made a careful examination to ascertain the cause of obstruction, and was struck with two things:—

1st. The great thickness and resistency of the perineum.

2d. The regular straining and relaxation of this structure, which took place during each pain, and its regular return to its normal state the moment the uterine contractions ceased.

Knowing that the doctrine of the schools teaches that this same dilatation is due to the pressure of the child's head on the perineal structures, my attention was at once arrested by this apparently peculiar case, and I consequently determined to watch the whole process narrowly.

The report of the case at this stage was as follows: The external parts moist, but rather narrow, the fourchette being peculiarly thick.

The head high up at the pelvic brim, and presenting such a surface to the touch as to make me quite undecided as to the exact position it might take in the pelvic cavity.

The uterine contractions strong, vigorous, and occurring at regular intervals of five minutes. As soon as the uterus began to contract, I found the thick perineum, or rather fourchette, gradually thin out and dilate under my finger and thumb, and on the pain subsiding the structure gradually returned to its former size and resistance. As the case went on, this dilatation or straining became more decided, while the return to its normal state was less perfect.

The head, after some hours, reached the hollow of the sacrum, and the labour proceeded to its termination in the usual way.

The conclusions I arrived at from the above facts are these:—

1st. Nature has provided the perineal structure with an inherent power of dilatation, and that this dilatation does not always depend on the pressure of the child's head.

2d. This dilatation takes place during a uterine contraction.

3d. When the uterus is quiescent, the perineal structures return to a state of contraction.

43. *Laceration of the Uterus.*—Dr. THOMAS RADFORD read (May 2d) before the Obstetrical Society of London, a paper on this subject, in which after briefly alluding to the views of Hunter, Denman, and Douglas on this most dangerous complication of labour, related minutely the histories of nineteen cases which had fallen under his notice. Of this number, in eleven the ages registered were from 21 to 40 years, and it was found that the accident occurred more frequently between the ages of 39 and 40. The number of labours which each woman had undergone varied from the first to the eleventh; and it was shown that laceration of the uterus happened most frequently in women pregnant for the eighth time, and that in those *enceinte* for the first time the accident took place quite as often as it did in any of the other cases which were registered. The duration of the labour from its commencement to the occurrence of laceration (though in some cases not exceeding three or four hours) was generally from ten to thirty hours. Of the various causes or conditions mentioned as producing laceration, slight contraction at the brim of the pelvis appeared to have been the most frequent. The author considered that when the form of the pelvis was only slightly contracted, the os and cervix uteri partially descended during labour into or a little through the aperture of the pelvis, so that, as the head of the infant was forced down, the uterine tissues became fixed between this body and the pelvic bones. The fixity of this structure actually formed a *point d'appui* from which the uterine fibres during contraction forcibly pulled; and the great probability was that sooner or later the tissue either directly tore, or, being first contused and softened, yielded. As regarded the situation of the laceration, the cervix uteri was the part most frequently affected, and sometimes with it the body of the organ was also implicated. In eleven cases the laceration was longitudinal, in three transverse, in three oblique, and in one circular. Of the nineteen cases, three recoveries took place, or nearly sixteen or seventeen per cent. Dr. Radford, in his concluding remarks, observed that when we contemplated the frequent fatality of laceration of the womb, we were led to inquire whether there were no symptoms which showed themselves as universal precursors of this dreadful catastrophe; and if there were, did we possess the means of prevention? In all the cases he now brought before the Society, there could not be found any with premonitory symptoms which of themselves would warrant any operative measures being taken in order to avert the impending danger. Nevertheless, he thought we should carefully consider all the contingent circumstances of protracted labours, and especially of those which were prolonged by mechanical impediments; and whether they were produced by relative disproportion of the capacity of the pelvis to the size of the foetal head; if so, we should adopt measures of timely delivery.

Dr. GRAILY HEWITT acknowledged the great value of Dr. Radford's paper,
No. CIV.—Oct. 1866.

but could not agree in the antiphlogistic treatment mentioned by the author. He (Dr. Hewitt) concurred in the opinion that there was an absence of uniformity of symptoms in these cases, and strongly urged the necessity for early artificial aid in some cases of protracted labour. He related a case of concealed hemorrhage, in which the symptoms were closely allied to those observed in ruptured uterus.

Dr. PLAYFAIR could not approve of the treatment which had been adopted in those cases where the foetus had escaped into the peritoneal cavity. He thought a much better line of treatment would be to perform gastrotomy. He knew of twelve cases in which this operation had been performed, and in some with satisfactory results.

Dr. BRAXTON HICKS said that, with respect to the symptoms of rupture, it was generally asserted that recession of the head was a constant symptom, but that he had never seen a case where this had taken place. He believed there were many more cases of ruptured uteri that we were cognizant of. Dr. Hicks believed that one of the greatest safeguards against rupture was the use of chloroform.—*Med. Times and Gaz.*, July 7, 1866.

44. *Cases of Rupture of the Uterus.*—Dr. GORDON related the following case to the Obstetrical Society of Edinburgh (March 28th, 1866): "On the 25th of January last, about 11 o'clock at night, I was summoned to attend this poor woman in her confinement of her eighth child. The patient was a middle-sized, plump, healthy woman, thirty-three years of age. On my arrival at her residence, about 12 o'clock, I found she had been in labour three or four hours previously. Her pains were not frequent, recurring at intervals of about fifteen minutes, not by any means powerful, and had very little influence on the os uteri; she evidently, as she termed it herself, 'was not bad enough yet.' On making an examination, I found the head presenting, but high up above the brim of the pelvis, and the os dilated between a half crown and five-shilling piece. Being some distance from home, I made up my mind to remain with my patient and watch the progress of the case, hoping that the uterus would soon begin to contract more powerfully and speedily terminate the case favourably. In this I was disappointed, as during the next two hours her pains increased but slightly either in force or frequency; the os had dilated a little, but the head descended none—seeming to rest somewhat against the pubic bone. By 3 o'clock in the morning, matters changed a little for the better, her pains became more frequent as well as stronger, and the occiput got relieved from its fixed position, took the axis of the pelvis, and began to descend. I hoped, now soon, to see a happy and favourable termination of the case. Lest, however, my hopes should again be disappointed, I immediately despatched for my instruments, expecting by the time the messenger could have returned that the head would be in a favourable position to enable me to apply the forceps if need be, and deliver the woman; but before the messenger returned, matters became worse, her pains became weaker and less frequent, and now for the first time she began to say that her pains were changed, that she had them more in her 'belly than her back,' but that they were not constant, 'just the same kind of pain she had in her back.' I examined with my hand over the abdomen; she complained of no tenderness whatever, and there was nothing unusual to be felt at the time. She continued having pains, but slight, and still in front; and to my annoyance the head began to recede instead of advance. I again laid my hand over the abdomen, and now found the uterus contracting with some distension of the abdomen, principally flatulence. Feeling convinced that something had gone wrong, and suspecting rupture of the uterus had taken place, I again and more carefully if possible examined the abdomen. There was now no longer room left to doubt as to the nature of the case, for the uterus was still contracting, and the extremities of the child were to be felt moving about in the cavity of the abdomen; and on making a vaginal examination, there was a slit to be felt in the posterior lip of the os; yet there was no unusual discharge per vaginam. Feeling myself at my wits' end, and being near Edinburgh, I at once rode into town, called on Dr. Keiller, and stated my case to him. He, to whom I am much indebted, at once kindly offered to visit my patient with me. On our ar-

living at her house, Dr. Keiller carefully examined the patient, and satisfied himself of the nature and extent of the accident. He recommended to deliver by version, which operation he easily performed, except that there was a good deal of traction required in bringing the head over the brim of the pelvis. The child was still-born, and the mother survived the accident only thirty-six hours. There was a considerable prominence of the os pubis, as afterwards ascertained; but considering the child-bearing history of the patient, together with the nature of the labour, slow and powerless, I do not consider there was any urgent demand for more active measures being used in the earlier part of the labour. She had her first child when twenty years of age, a girl, still-born, no instrument used; the second, a boy, also dead, forceps used; the next three, girls, easy labours, living children, and no instruments; the sixth, a boy, living child, forceps used; the seventh, a boy, still-born; and the eighth and last as already given. Considering this history of the case, I am inclined to think that the cause of the rupture was not so much the protuberance already referred to, but softening of the walls of the uterus consequent upon repeated child-bearing.

“Dr. Keiller stated that when he was called to see the patient he found her in a state approaching that of collapse. On examination the contracted uterine tumour was lying forward, while the child had passed into the abdominal cavity through an opening in the posterior wall of the cervical portion of the uterus. The opening was still gaping, and on passing the hand through it he felt the head close to the rupture. The cord was not pulsating. The intestines of the mother were in contact with the limbs of the child. He easily delivered the woman by turning, but considerable traction was necessary to extract the head. There was no extension of the laceration during the somewhat forcible extraction. Dr. K. thought that gastrotomy was a better procedure in some cases than turning, and more likely to diminish the mortality. Out of 60 reported cases of rupture of the uterus 57 were fatal, 53 being delivered by turning, forceps, or craniotomy, the other 7 were delivered naturally. Gastrotomy cases have been more successful. M. Dufeillay narrates 12 cases of gastrotomy, and only 1 fatal. Dr. Winckel relates a case where the uterus was twice ruptured, and where gastrotomy was performed successfully on both occasions. When the child is turned and dragged back through the laceration, there is a risk to the mother from the retention of the discharges, as well as from hemorrhage. As a general rule he would recommend turning when the rupture was at the cervix, and gastrotomy when in the body of the uterus. Dr. K. mentioned one case which he had seen with Dr. Moir, where the patient was delivered by gastrotomy, and rallied for some time. Dr. Keiller read the following letter which he had received from a gentleman who had heard him refer to Dr. Gordon's case immediately after its occurrence. The note appeared worthy of being read on the present occasion.

“In your lecture yesterday you spoke of a case of ruptured uterus—the treatment pursued, the results of the treatment, and the plan of procedure you would adopt if another such case should occur. I thought you would not think it improper if I should narrate the following case which happened in the hands of Dr. Vail, a practitioner in my native country, New Brunswick, and one of my neighbours. I may mention that Dr. Vail is quite reliable in these matters, having had a very long experience, and having enjoyed a first-rate reputation in this particular branch of the profession. A woman, thirty-three years old, short stature, very fleshy, fell into labour at the termination of her third pregnancy. He examined, and found the head presenting, and proceeding regularly through the pelvic cavity. The pains were regular, of full but not dangerous force; there was not, he thought, the slightest reason to suspect any danger arising from the mere force of the pains. On introducing his finger to ascertain the condition of matters, he was surprised to be unable to find the head of the child. On carefully thinking over the matter he suspected the cause, and on introducing his hand and arm he felt two scroll-like bodies, smooth, which he suspected to be the walls of the ruptured uterus rolled up on themselves. He found the child lying among the mother's intestines, seized a foot, and by the exercise of great force succeeded in drawing the child through the natural passages. The woman was of course very much exhausted, but by the

use of gentle restoratives she rallied, and by the careful employment of opium, with good but easily digested diet, she finally came around. Of course, perfect rest and the other necessary adjuvants were particularly enjoined and observed. He informed me that no unfavourable symptom occurred until the eighth day, when she suddenly complained of pain and tenderness in the abdomen, but this was promptly controlled by hot fomentations and opium. She was able to walk about in five weeks from the occurrence of the accident."

45. *Evisulsion of the Umbilical Cord occurring at Birth.*—Dr. G. de GORREQUER GRIFFITH relates (*Medical Press and Circular*, Aug. 8, 1866) the following example of this very rare accident:—

"July 8th, I was summoned to attend Mrs. —, who was taken in labour with her first child. I attended almost immediately, and on my arrival I was told that they did not think I should be required just yet, as she had been in pain only for the last two hours. I forthwith entered her room, at the very moment I did so she had a strong bearing-down pain, and I told her that she had better lie down as soon as the pain was over. While she was yet in pain she attempted to get on the bed, but as she made the effort she called out that the child was in the world, and before I could endeavour to catch it, the little thing fell upon its head with some force, and rolled upon the floor. I noticed that the child was quite livid, that the cord had been torn out from the abdomen, and that the child was apparently lifeless. The blood spirted out from the umbilical aperture, and before I could render any assistance some little quantity was lost. The child seemed to be in a state of syncope, very soon lost its livid hue, and became all over deadly pale. As quickly as I could I seized the integument surrounding the umbilical aperture (there was not a vestige of the cord), and tied it as tightly as I could. Fortunately the state of syncope in which the child lay enabled me to apply the ligature tightly, no pain being felt, and so effectually that it did not slip off, nor was afterwards disturbed when the child began to cry and to move. No ill effect obtained to the mother, and the placenta was easily removed."

46. *Chlorate of Potash in the Treatment of Ovarian Disease.*—Mr. W. CRAIG records (*Edinburgh Medical Journal*, Nov. 1865) the two following cases successfully treated by chlorate of potass:—

CASE I.—Miss S., of Ayr, is of middle height, sallow complexion, and apparently of sound constitution. The tumour is on the left side, rising out of the iliac region. It is about the size of a child's head of a month old. The patient states that the tumour is sore when pressed, also during defecation and micturition. She menstruates regularly. It is free in its attachments, and rolls from side to side as the patient turns in bed. It is about five years since she first observed the enlargement, and it was about a year after this when she first applied for medical advice. She had the counsel of many medical men, and took many medicines, but received benefit from none of them. She was under the treatment of one medical man during the twelve months immediately before coming to me. This gentleman used many medicines and numerous external applications, all without any beneficial effect. He then, with the consent of other medical men, resolved to perform the operation, but he died when preparing for it.

When she came to me I immediately put her upon a saturated solution of chlorate of potass—a dessert-spoonful thrice daily. She stated that she had only taken the medicine two or three weeks when she felt a gradual improvement in her general health. The tumour gradually diminished in bulk till, at the end of ten or twelve months, it disappeared. After the tumour had been so far reduced as not to be felt through the parietes of the abdomen, it could be felt in its greatly reduced size lying close to the uterus. About this time it was about one and a half inch in diameter. Subsequently, the tumour has disappeared completely, with the uneasiness and symptoms depending on its bulk, and she has since continued in her usual health.

CASE II.—Miss C. from London. The attention of this lady was first called to her complaint when taking a bath in June, 1861. At this time she felt a

swelling rising from the right side of the pelvis. It was then about the size of an egg, and moved from the side to the middle of the abdomen. There was no pain in the tumour when the body was at rest, but in quick walking and some other forms of bodily exertion, it seemed as if bound by a light network all over the lower part of the right side. There was frequently a dull pain in the iliac region, and more rarely a sharp, stinging pain; but when at rest, or in ordinary walking, there was no pain. The patient states that her health was very sensibly affected by it. "I lost strength and tone, and became listless. The tumour grew rapidly from June to September, but after this the enlargement was slow in its progress. The tumour till now was always movable, but subsequently it became more fixed."

She came expressly to Scotland to consult an eminent practitioner, and was under his treatment two months of the summer of 1862, and nearly as long in the same season of 1863.

It was in the autumn of 1863 that she consulted me. On examining the tumour I noted no particular induration of its texture, but its size was about that of a large fist. Her former adviser had used many medicines and appliances with but little effect. The patient was twice cupped and leeches over the tumour, and the skin was twice painted over with a preparation which acted like a blister, and was also painted many times with combinations of iodine. She had tonics from the beginning, and daily a solution of bromide of potass. She also passed an electric current through the tumour for half an hour daily, and this was done during two years. The only effect of the treatment hitherto applied was to make the tumour "more compressed or harder." Immediately on her application to me I commenced the administration of the saturated solution of chlorate of potass in dessert-spoonfuls thrice daily, and with what effect I shall allow the patient to tell. "I will add, that about three or four months after I had seen you, and taken the medicine you prescribed, the swelling disappeared as it came, silently and suddenly. I continued your medicine, and the occasional use of the electric battery until a few months ago. I use neither now; and as I said before, I have no swelling; none whatever; none."

I saw this lady in London a short time ago, and I could not discover a vestige of the tumor.

47. *Uterine Hæmatocele*.—Dr. J. MATHEWS DUNCAN publishes (*Edinburgh Medical Journal*, Nov. 1865) three cases to show that intro-peritoneal hæmatocele may be produced by uterine hemorrhage flowing through a Fallopian tube, even while the natural passages for its discharge are unobstructed; and also to show the possible frequency of this occurrence. He does not wish to be understood, however, as denying other sources, or of throwing any doubt on the numerous narratives of cases in which other sources have been demonstrated by *post-mortem* examinations.

48. *Case of Congenital Jaundice—Umbilical Hemorrhage*.—Dr. JAMES CAPRIE reported to the Edinburgh Obstetrical Society a case of congenital jaundice which proved fatal on the eighth day by hemorrhage from the umbilicus.

Prof. JAMES SIMPSON stated that he had seen several cases of secondary umbilical hemorrhage, most of which were fatal, and some of them combined with jaundice and thrombosis in the umbilical vein. He had seen cauterization, ligature, a needle, and figure-of-eight suture, and other means usually fail; but lately visited a case with Dr. Moir, where the simple and free application of the saturated solution of perchloride of iron in glycerine arrested the bleeding after other measures seemed useless. Dr. Churchill had recommended a trial of plaster of Paris as a solidifying compress; but he was not aware whether it had been employed in practice.—*Edinburgh Med. Journ.*, June, 1866.

49. *Early Menstruation*.—Prof. HUBBARD communicated the following example of this to the Edinburgh Obstetrical Society (May 23, 1866). In February last a little Irish girl was brought to my clinique, by her parents, presenting the stature and development of a child of eight or ten years of age, but with the mature-looking, shrivelled face, and sallow complexion of womanhood. Her

parents stated, in reply to the usual question, that "*her courses had stopped*," and wanted to know if something could be done to "bring her round." They said the child was eight years of age, and had been "regular" every month since she was five years old until two months ago. In reply to further questions, they said that a discharge of blood appeared regularly from the vagina, lasting three or four days; that she was uniformly in good health as other children until this suppression, since when she had become pale and listless, but retained her appetite for food. No examination of the genital organs was made; but the mammary glands presented no increase of development beyond what is common in children of her age. The expression of the eye and face, however, was that of established puberty. I am not aware that an authentic case of so early an appearance of menstruation (if this can be called such) has been recorded as occurring in a person of the white race.

Dr. Keiller remarked that the case now related seemed to be an instance of so-called *menstruation*, but the evidence adduced was only that of the parents, and not that of Dr. Hubbard, whose personal observation and opinion of the actual occurrence and character of the discharges would have been more satisfactory. He (Dr. K.) was led to make this remark, not because he doubted the probability of the facts being as reported, but because it often happened that the statements of non-professional observers were not so correct as they ought to be; for example, not many months ago a child was brought to the Edinburgh Hospital for Sick Children, and was admitted under his (Dr. K.'s) care, as a case in which, according to the mother's report, menstruation had for some time regularly taken place. This girl was only eight years old, and on admission presented no very obvious features of undue development. She remained in the hospital under close observation for some time, but no such symptoms as those referred to by her mother appeared, and it was reasonably doubted if anything like real menstruation had previously occurred. It could not be denied that bloody discharges occasionally took place from the utero-vaginal mucous membrane of young girls, or even of infants; but it by no means necessarily follows that such discharges were, or ought to be looked upon as *menstrual* in the proper sense of the term.—*Ed. Med. Journ.*, July, 1866.

50. *On Extreme Surgical Tendencies of Pathologists; and on the Division of the Cervix Uteri.*—Dr. TILT, in a paper read before the Obstetrical Society of London, July 4, 1866, deprecated the extreme surgical tendency that seemed to characterize the present epoch. He gave as a proof of this tendency the frequency with which operations have been discussed at medical societies, the unnecessary multiplication of surgical instruments, and the warmth with which their invention or modification was supported. He likewise noticed two books which have lately appeared: one, a very important work by Dr. Marion Sims, in which constitutional means of curing diseases of women were almost completely ignored; and another, by Mr. I. B. Brown, in which it was recommended to cure hysteria, epilepsy, and insanity by amputation of the clitoris. Dr. Tilt stated that he had known the division of the cervix uteri to have been frequently performed or recommended in cases where he was able to pass the uterine sound, and he submitted that no practitioner was warranted in dividing the cervix, either for sterility or dysmenorrhœa, when the cervical canal had that width; as microscopic animalculæ could find no difficulty in ascending where the uterine sound could pass. He alluded to the difficulty of passing a sound into the virgin womb, which did not interfere with the frequency of conception, in young women, soon after marriage. The author's experience led him to believe that the utility of dividing the cervix uteri had been unintentionally exaggerated. There was no statistics to show that conception was frequent after the operation; and he had frequently been consulted by those who had been operated upon during the last ten years, and who had remained barren. Dr. Tilt argued that there was so great a tendency on the part of the divided surfaces of the cervix to reunite, that the operation was generally useless unless followed up by dilatation; and he thought that in the majority of cases of uterine stricture dilatation was the safest and best way to relieve dysmenorrhœa and to facilitate conception. He wished the division of the cervix to be re-

stricted to cases where the cervical canal was extremely narrow or the cervical walls very hard, and to cases wherein dilatation had proved a failure, or where there was flooding from uterine fibroids. He reserved his opinion respecting the value of the operation in cases of uterine displacement or of malformation; and deprecated the operation being resorted to as a kind of *pis aller* in those intractable forms of uterine disease in which relapses depend either on a congenital unhealthy tendency of the organs of generation, or on some deeply rooted constitutional taint. Dr. Tilt mentioned that in three of his patients the operation had been performed without the knowledge of the patients or their friends, and he took occasion to remark that this did not accord with the usually received notions of medical ethics.

Dr. HENRY BENNET thought that Dr. Tilt deserved the thanks of the Society and of the profession for the paper read that evening. Although for the last seven years ill health had kept him out of active practice, he had continued to take the liveliest interest in uterine pathology, and had made himself acquainted with all that had been written and said on the subject. As a result he was deeply impressed with the idea that the therapeutics of uterine disease had taken of late too surgical a direction, and he thought, like Dr. Tilt, that this tendency required restraining, limiting, directing. After a seven years' absence from the debates of the Society, he could not but feel that it was passing strange that he should have to rise as a conservative, and that in the very arena where he had many a time, in former days, defended progress, and where he had been opposed and stigmatized as a rash innovator. When he commenced practice in London twenty-three years ago, uterine therapeutics comprised little else but the treatment of cancer, tumours, prolapsus, and constitutional conditions. The most continued and irrational opposition met his efforts to establish more correct views—to demonstrate that physical means of investigation were as imperatively demanded in the study and treatment of diseases of the uterus as in those of diseases of the heart, lung, bladder, rectum, &c. By degrees, however, the more reasonable ideas gained ground, and the senseless opposition to the progress of science was vanquished. Now it had entirely ceased, and had become a mere remembrance of the past. Indeed, as stated by Dr. Tilt, the danger rather appeared to be in going too far the other way, and interfering too much. This seemed probable when a recent surgical work on female diseases, written by a clever, experienced, laborious American surgeon, his friend, Dr. Marion Sims, proposed division of the cervix uteri on both sides, down to its vaginal attachments, as a remedy for all kinds of morbid conditions, for various deviations, and for sterility. Indeed the Doctor, in one page, stated that he and his colleague in the Female Hospital at New York, performed this operation 500 times in two years. Again, many recent writers and operators seemed imbued with the idea that the passage through the cervical canal to the cavity of the uterus ought to be, what might be termed metaphorically, as open "as a carriage door," constantly finding stricture therein, for which they operate by ruthless divisions, if it is not so. He (Dr. Bennet) believed that this view was founded in error, and that the greater part of these cutting operations were not in any respect called for or necessary. He believed also that this error would not be so constantly made were his discovery of a sphincter at the os internum recollected or recognized. This sphincter was a vital contraction of the circular fibres of the cervix at the os internum, similar in function to the sphincters which closed other cavities—the stomach, rectum, bladder. When the cold uterine sound reached it it contracted, and impeded its entrance into the uterine cavity, and a stricture was declared to exist. A wax bougie, No. 4 or 5, on the contrary, its extremity warmed by the hand, and slightly curved to the shape he had described as that of the uterine passages, generally entered with ease. The patent condition of the cervical passages which these authors appeared to consider necessary for conception was not natural, and certainly not necessary for the entrance of microscopic spermatozoa. It must not be forgotten either, in treating of sterility, that in England one married woman in six is sterile; in America, according to Dr. Marion Sims, one in eight. The causes of sterility were very numerous, and were not to be removed merely by cutting a royal road for the spermatozoa. Moreover, these divisions of the cervix healed up, and in a few

months the narrowed condition was as bad or worse than ever in most cases. Twenty years ago, at Sir James Simpson's instigation, he operated in many cases, and all but abandoned the operation on account of these relapses. Since then he had generally used very small sponges if he wished to dilate, and had never once had an accident. The attacks of inflammation that had occurred in the hands of others had no doubt been caused by the attempted dilatation of inflamed tissues. The cervical canal ought to be perfectly sound when it was interfered with. In conclusion he repeated that he quite agreed with Dr. Tilt that the uterus is now-a-days too frequently interfered with surgically, and that the indications for operations required better defining.

Mr. BAKER BROWN said he thought the paper was brought forward at a most appropriate time, for he perfectly agreed with the author and with the observations of Dr. Henry Bennet that operations upon the cervix uteri were performed too frequently, and without proper regard to preparatory and subsequent treatment. He was glad to have the opportunity of stating before the Society, in the strongest language, his reprehension of the rashness with which this operation was performed in both the out-patients' department of hospitals and the consulting rooms of the operator. He had always taught that the operation of dividing the os and cervix uteri was one of great danger; and although he had performed it a vast number of times, he had never done so without careful preparatory treatment, and the most absolute rest for two or three weeks after the operation. He thought the danger was also increased by the frequent division of the internal os. For his own part, in all cases of flexions, he simply divided the cervix up to, but not through, the internal os; but in all cases of uterine hemorrhage or intra-uterine fibroid tumours, he then carried his incision through the internal os. In all cases, immediately after the operation, he plugged with oiled lint, and took every precaution to prevent the admission of atmospheric air. He believed the neglect of these precautions would generally account for the untoward results which so frequently followed the operation. He could confirm all that Dr. Bennet had said as to the opposition and persecution he had met with in reference to his treatment of uterine diseases; and when he reflected how triumphantly Dr. Bennet had overcome all his opponents by the truth of his practice, he (Mr. Brown) felt consoled for the opposition he received for publishing the results of his experience on a subject of which he as yet confessed himself to be but a learner. But as he had always, through a long professional career, immediately published any innovation which he had believed to be practically useful, so he would continue unto the end, feeling sure that the majority of the profession would always honestly investigate anything which he might place before them.—*Lancet*, Aug. 25, 1866.

HYGIENE.

51. *Organic Impurities in Water*.—No fact is better established than that the use of impure water exercises a very injurious influence on health. Dr. WM. PROCTOR has lately published (*Lancet*, Sept. 8th, 1866) some remarks on the subject which are well worthy of attention. The organic impurities of water are of two kinds: they occur either in a state of solution or in a solid form. There is a curious circumstance pointed out by Dr. P. with regard to the production of the different kinds of organisms found in water, which is that if the water be alkaline, infusoria chiefly show themselves; but if acid, fungoid vegetations were most numerous.

"Almost all water contains some organic matter derived from the soil. Even that from granitic districts contains from 0.3 to 0.7 grains per gallon, whilst water which has permeated vegetable soil may afford 12 to 30 or even more grains per gallon.

"Confining our attention only to the soluble organic matter, this will be found of two kinds—(1) non-nitrogenous, composed of carbon, hydrogen, and

oxygen, the result of vegetable decomposition; (2) nitrogenous, made up of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen, from the decomposition of animal matter. Occasionally sulphur and phosphorus are added to these constituents; but when this is the case, the odour produced by the resulting sulphuretted or phosphuretted hydrogen at once reveals their presence. Therefore, practically, the elements of noxious and insidious organic matter will be carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen. An invariable result of the decomposition of all animal matter is ammonia, and as the result of a similar change on vegetable matter Hermann has given a list of ten distinct substances. But, without entering into needless detail, we will simply consider the general results of vegetable decay.

"When vegetable mould or humus is boiled with an alkali and an acid is added to the filtered solution, a brown precipitate falls, which (according to Mulder) consists of

Humic acid	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	$C_{40}H_{12}O_{12}$
Ulmic acid	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	$C_{40}H_{14}O_{12}$
Geic acid	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	$C_{40}H_{17}O_{17}$

These substances are all soluble in alkalies and precipitated from that solution by acids. There are two other constituents of humin, the so-called crenic and apocrenic acids, to which the term 'acid' is improperly applied, as they are soluble in acids as well as alkalies. In the formation of these acids no notice has been taken of the contemporaneous formation of carbonic acid and carburets of hydrogen. The decomposition of animal matter gives rise to an extensive series of compounds, among which ammonia and the nitrates prevail largely with the fatty acids and other substances not well understood. One great character of the organic vegetable acids the result of decomposition is their disposition to unite with ammonia—in fact, unless prepared pure by artificial means, they always occur in water with 2.5 to 7 per cent. of ammonia.

"The sources of nitrogenous organic matter are evident and numerous, and are derived from animal excreta or from decomposing animal matter and the refuse of manufactories. The contents of sewers or cesspools drain into springs or rivers, or the water permeates soil more or less impregnated with these things. Water may be contaminated in this manner by a nuisance at a considerable distance from it, but dependent on the porosity or tenacity of the soil. Professor Ansted states that the deepest (non-artesian) well will not drain a circle which is more than half a mile in radius.

"Organic matter in water may be detected by adding to it a few drops of solution of gold and boiling; in proportion to the amount of organic matter, the gold is reduced and precipitates as a dark powder. The alkaline permanganates are extremely useful in this respect: when solutions of these salts are placed in contact with oxidizable organic matter, they speedily lose their beautiful pink colour, the solution becomes colourless, depositing at the same time a brown precipitate. The addition of a few drops of permanganate of potash to water, and undergoing this change, indicates the presence of organic matter. The rationale is simple. The permanganate of potash is a substance rich in loosely combined oxygen; with that agent it oxidizes the organic matter which is destroyed, the permanganic acid itself is deoxidized, reduced to the binoxide, and precipitated. Dr. R. Thompson made a general estimate of the quantity of organic matter by a series of solutions of different strengths, noting the time required to destroy the several colours on the addition of a given quantity of the water to be examined.

"The estimation of the actual amount of organic matter present in water is of vast importance, and is not a matter of difficulty. This is obtained chiefly by two methods—(1) Evaporate a known quantity of the water in a platinum dish on the water bath, having previously added a measured quantity of a solution of carbonate of soda of known strength. The evaporation being completed, the dish is exposed to a temperature of 248° to 260° in an oil bath, and continued until it ceases to lose weight. It is now weighed, and the weight of the dish and the carbonate of soda being subtracted gives the amount of solid residue in the quantity of water employed. The dish with the residue is now

exposed to a dull-red heat until all the organic matter is destroyed. When cool a solution of carbonic acid is added, and the dish again dried until its weight is constant. The difference between this last weight and that before ignition represents the amount of organic and other volatile matter present. (2) The other method of estimation is by permanganate of potash, and has been carefully investigated by Dr. Woods (*Journ. of the Chem. Soc.*, June, 1863). Weigh one gramme (15.43 grains) of dry permanganate of potash, and dissolve in 1 litre (35.28 fluidounces) of pure distilled water, then graduate the solution with oxalic acid by taking 40 c.c. of centinormal oxalic acid (*i. e.*, 0.63 grammes of the acid in 1 litre of water) in 300 c.c. of pure water and 2 c.c. of sulphuric acid, heating to 140° Fahr., and dropping in the permanganate from a burette; 13 c.c. of the pink solution should be exactly decolorized. If not, the correction must be made by a little calculation. Then take 1 litre of the water to be examined, add 2 c.c. of strong sulphuric acid, heat to 140°; remove the heat; drop in the standard solution from a burette, stirring continually, and stop when the faintest pink tint is perceptible. If after a time this disappears, add a little more of the permanganate, and so on until a tint permanent for half an hour is obtained. Then read the number of c.c. used; deduct 0.24 cc. as the quantity of permanganate necessary to give a red tinge to 1 litre of water. We have now the quantity of permanganate decolorized by 1 litre of the water, and Dr. Woods has ascertained that 1 c.c. of solution of the above strength is decomposed by 0.005 grammes (=5 milligrammes) of oxidizable organic matter; therefore multiply the number of c.c. of permanganate solution by 0.005, and the result gives the amount of organic matter in grammes per litre, or, to bring it to grains per gallon, multiply it by 70. This gives of course only the amount of oxidizable organic matter, and is used by Dr. Frankland and others to determine the amount of oxygen necessary for this purpose. Therefore, nitrites, &c., may exist and not be detected by this process. It is not applicable to waters containing protosalts of iron or hydrosulphuric acid.

"Having in this manner proved the existence and quantity of impurity, the next point for consideration is the purification of such water. Ordinary filters simply remove suspended matters; ebullition destroys (and vast is its importance) the vitality of animal and vegetable impurities. But filtration carried on through sand and clay or animal charcoal not only deprives water of mechanical impurities, but, in the latter case especially, removes from it organic matter most effectually, and in all probability by a process of oxidation.

"The tendency of the physiology of the present day is to show that the origin of zymotic diseases is due to the presence of living germs capable of remaining dormant until they are placed in a condition appropriate and necessary for their development. If this is so, and such sources of disease may exist in water, it is questionable if they are, like dead organic matter, susceptible of destruction by oxidation. It is a certain fact that these organisms are capable of destruction by a number of caustic substances, as salts of iron, carbonic acid, etc., which are impracticable when water has to be used for dietetic purposes. The temperature of boiling water likewise destroys the vitality of these germs, admits of practical application, and is in this respect a perfect purifier. Whilst it is doubtful how far the use of filtration through charcoal and permanganate of potash is effectual in the removal of insidious living germs, no doubt can exist of its efficacy in the removal of dead and noxious organic matter. Hence, by a combination of these three methods, the danger of disease from these sources is removed.

"Dr. Medlock has offered a suggestion for the removal of organic matter from water. He observed that water of this description had the amount of organic matter materially lessened after passing through iron pipes—the action of the metal upon that matter being an oxidizing one, converting the nitrogen into nitrous acid, and in this manner breaking up the affinities of the carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen. He states that, by allowing water to remain in contact with a coil of iron wire for twelve hours, all trace of organic matter is removed, or that it is converted from a soluble into an insoluble state, and in this condition capable of being removed by ordinary filtration.

"The superiority of the permanganates for purifying water over filtration

through animal charcoal may be shown by passing water containing organic matter through the latter substance; on testing this filtered liquid with Condry's fluid, it will become in many cases decolorized. The simplicity of the process is one of its great advantages, and even if, from careless application, a portion of the salt is left in solution, or of the peroxide of manganese in suspension, no harm can result. But if the adjustment is carefully made, all the metallic oxide is precipitated, as well as the carbonate of lime (if present) held in solution by excess of carbonic acid, which is neutralized by the liberated alkali of the permanganate, and the water by simple decantation is obtained pure, except probably (when used alone) in the destruction of some organic germs.

"In sulphur water—*i. e.*, that containing hydrosulphuric acid, sulphurous acid, etc.—the colour will be destroyed in the test (on account of the deoxidizing properties of these gases) without the presence of organic matter, and the water left free from impurity with the precipitation of the oxide of manganese and free sulphur. If sulphide of ammonium is present, carbonate of ammonia is formed. Lead, iron, and copper can be separated from water by the same method.

"In the application of these salts to the purification of water on a large scale, many questions of economy are involved, but, as Dr. Letheby remarks, 'it must not be forgotten that only a very small part of the water delivered by a company is used for primary domestic purposes, the great bulk of it being employed for flushing closets, drains, and sewers, for watering streets, and for many manufacturing purposes. It would therefore manifestly be an unnecessary wasteful application of a tedious and expensive process to do that at the works which can be so easily, so surely, and so much more economically done at the point of consumption.'

"Water which is employed for drinking purposes should possess the following properties: It should be clear, colourless, inodorous, and tasteless; it should be well aerated, and especially cool. It is difficult to fix the exact amount of dissolved constituents. As a general rule, subject to limitation, it should not contain more than—of organic matter, 1 grain; of carbonate of lime, 16 grains; of sulphate of lime, 3 grains; of chloride of sodium, 10 grains; of carbonate of soda, 20 grains, per gallon."

MEDICAL JURISPRUDENCE AND TOXICOLOGY.

52. *Poisoning by Tobacco-Juice.*—M. A. MARCHANT relates the following case: A smoker, in drawing air strongly through an obstructed pipe, in order to make it more permeable, took into his mouth and involuntarily swallowed a dislodged plug of inspissated tobacco-juice. In a short time his head became heavy, his thoughts confused, his speech indistinct; he had noises in the ears, a disagreeable feeling at the epigastrium, and dryness of the throat. Believing that the open air would remove these feelings, the patient went out; but the headache and giddiness increased, and the patient at last fell down insensible, in which condition he was after some time found by a passenger and carried into his house. Copious and repeated vomiting then set in; consciousness returned; but the patient fell into a restless, somnolent state. He had severe headache, *malaise*, and faintness, during the whole of the next day. The spontaneous recovery may be attributed either to the small amount of nicotine contained in the plug, or to the imperfect absorption of the poison contained in the hardened plug.—*Brit. and For., Med. Chir. Rev.*, April, 1866, from *Journal de Bruxelles*.

53. *Death from Swallowing Four Ounces of Chloroform.*—E. C. BOARD, Esq., reports (*British Med. Journ.*, May 26, 1866) an interesting case of this. The subject of it was a strong, muscular porter, aged forty-two, addicted to drink, who took about four ounces of chloroform, mistaking it for alcohol, and did not find out his error until after that quantity was swallowed. About an

hour afterwards (3½ P. M., May 16th, 1866) "he was brought to the Infirmary, having previously vomited once or twice. He could then just manage to sit up in a chair, but was very cold, and almost pulseless; his pupils were very much dilated, and he could hardly articulate. He seemed scarcely to understand anything said to him, and kept on muttering. The stomach-pump was then used, and altogether about two quarts of warm water were thrown into his stomach, and pumped out again. The water returned almost unchanged as to colour, and with no food mixed with it, but was so impregnated with chloroform as to fill the room and passage outside with a strong smell of that spirit. Brandy was then administered to him; mustard poultices were applied to the præcordial region and the calves of his legs, and he was galvanized for a considerable time with no apparent effect. I then gave him a drop of croton oil, and continued to administer small doses of brandy. In about an hour and a half after admission he rallied a little; the surface became warmer, the pupils contracted, and he was more sensible to the action of the galvanic battery. In half an hour all the worse symptoms returned; the pupils were fully dilated, the breathing stertorous, the surface covered with a cold sweat. He continued to rally for a short time, and then sink again, for an hour and a half, when his lips became dark purple, and his whole face livid. No action of the heart could be detected, and his respiration was gasping and very interrupted. I then applied the galvanic battery for nearly half an hour, when his breathing again became regular, and his lips and face regained their natural colour for a short time; but he then suddenly sank into the former state, and died at a quarter to nine o'clock P. M., six hours after he had taken the chloroform.

"Post-mortem examination, fifteen hours after death.—Rigor mortis was well marked. The body was generally well nourished. The calvarium was firmly attached to the dura mater along the mesial line. There was a considerable amount of fluid under the arachnoid, which was thickened and opaque, and did not readily peel off the convolutions. All the ventricles were full (though not distended) of clear fluid. The brain itself was firm, and appeared otherwise healthy. The veins of the cords and the sinuses were very much gorged with blood. The lungs were very much engorged with blood; there were several small patches of pulmonary apoplexy. The heart was healthy; the blood in all the cavities was quite fluid. The stomach was one-quarter full of dark fluid, which smelt very strongly of chloroform. Its internal surface was slightly inflamed in patches, and the mucous membrane was softened. The duodenum and commencement of the jejunum were healthy, but the lower part of the jejunum and the greater part of the ileum were of a dark chocolate colour, and became quite black after an hour or an hour and a half. The parts of the intestine round Peyer's patches were not affected in this manner. The large intestine was perfectly healthy throughout. There was no effusion or exudation into the peritoneal cavity. The liver was of usual size, but fatty. The gall-bladder was full of bile. The kidneys were granular; the capsule peeled off with difficulty. The pancreas, spleen, and bladder were healthy."

AMERICAN INTELLIGENCE.

ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

Sunstroke treated by the External Use of Ice. By JAMES J. LEVICK, M. D., one of the physicians of Pennsylvania Hospital.

During the intensely hot weather of July, 1866, there were twenty-two cases of sunstroke brought to the Pennsylvania Hospital. With a few exceptions they all presented the strongly marked and now familiar symptoms of this affection. In the week preceding July 18th twelve cases were admitted, of which number seven died. These were all treated with stimulants by the mouth or the rectum, cold affusions and the full bath.

On the 18th cases were brought to the house with frightful rapidity, seven persons in little more than an hour's time. The first of these was treated as the previous ones had been, and died within a few hours. Disheartened by this great mortality, the writer determined to adopt a somewhat different course of treatment, and, acting on a suggestion made by Dr. B. Darrach, late Resident Physician New York City Hospital (see *Am. Journ. Med. Sciences*, January, 1859), the patients were stripped of their clothing, and three men ordered to rub them steadily from head to foot with masses of ice, at the same time that pieces of ice were kept in the axillæ.

The condition of one of these men, and which may fairly be taken as the type of the others, was as follows: entirely unconscious, respiration stertorous, with coarse mucous rales, heart's action tumultuous, pulse so frequent that it could not be counted, skin pungently hot and dry, temperature in the axilla 110° F.

The rubbing with ice was continued for more than an hour before any evidence of returning consciousness was given, and this was first shown by the patient drawing the water into his mouth as the melting ice was passed over his lips. The treatment was continued until consciousness was fully restored, and, when the man could swallow, iced wine and water were given him. On the following morning he was entirely convalescent and was sitting up at his bedside. *Of seven cases thus treated during the 18th six recovered.* In the only fatal case, that of an elderly man, a *post-mortem* inspection revealed the existence of old pulmonary disease and of degeneration of the vessels at the base of the brain. On the following day another case was brought to the hospital which had occurred twenty-four hours previously and which proved fatal.

Although it would, perhaps, be unwise to draw positive inferences from the results in these few cases, it cannot yet be denied, especially when we remember the ordinary mortality of this terrible affection, that they were of the most gratifying character, and demand at least a further trial in similar cases.

But to be of use the ice must be thoroughly applied, not by little pieces, but by masses as large as can be conveniently handled, and persevered in until some evidence of returning consciousness is evinced, though this may not be for hours. It is also of great importance that this treatment should

be resorted to early. Recent observations have confirmed the fact, many years ago announced by Dr. Gerhard, that in *sunstroke* the essential pathological condition is an altered state of the blood, one in which it continues fluid after death, and its corpuscles, under the microscope, present a shrivelled and crenated appearance, closely resembling the blood of typhus fever. (See on this subject a paper by the writer in *Am. Journ. Med. Sci.*, January, 1859.) It is believed that by the intense heat such vital and chemical changes are induced in the blood as render it unfit for the nourishment of the organs and the proper performance of their varied functions. These changes are probably progressive, and if they can be arrested before the disorganization is complete life may be saved. On the other hand if permitted to continue, such destruction must soon occur as to render all efforts for recovery unavailing. Surely the remedy commends itself to us by its simplicity, and thus far by its effectiveness.

In concluding this brief notice it may not be amiss to add that, influenced perhaps by the interest which the papers of Dr. Ringer have imparted to the subject of temperature in disease, the state of the thermometer in the axilla was carefully noted in these cases of sunstroke. Its range was from 109° F. to 111°. Even after death, for more than an hour it was found to remain at 110° F. As might have been expected, decomposition occurred very soon after death took place.

1109 Arch Street, Philadelphia, Sept. 18, 1866.

Contagiousness of Typhoid Fever. By A. ROTHROCK, M. D., of McVeytown, Pennsylvania. (Communicated in a letter to Prof. A. Stillé, M. D.)

Some time in the latter part of October, 1846, a freshet swept away a mill-dam in the neighbourhood of McVeytown, Pa., by which the house occupied by Jas. McCay was flooded, the water rising to the depth of several feet in the lower story. After the water fell, this part of the house was found to be in such a filthy condition from deposits of mud, that it was closed and abandoned for the time being. At this time Mrs. McCay had an ordinary attack of bilious intermittent fever of the synochus grade, which was the prevailing type of our fevers previous to that time.

Soon after the occurrence of the freshet, the case of Mrs. McCay assumed a typhoid character, and ran from that period a regular course of typhoid fever for nearly three weeks, when she died.

About four days after the freshet, several other members of the family became ill with typhoid fever, and subsequently every few days another and another was stricken down, until at length the whole family, consisting of, I think, ten members, were attacked by the same disease, except Mr. McCay himself.

Bilious intermitting and remitting fever being the prevailing form of disease in the neighbourhood and in other localities of our borough, the inquiry naturally arose what could be the cause of this unusual manifestation of disease so totally different from what had prevailed in our neighbourhood up to this time? On inquiry I found, what I was not before aware of, that the lower story of the house, as mentioned above, had been abandoned immediately after the freshet, and in it were inclosed all the deposits of mud and vegetable matter left by the freshet, undergoing decomposition and thereby infecting the whole house. The house was immediately cleaned and disinfectants were used, but it was too late. The family were all down, and the disease fully formed ran its regular course. At this juncture there

was a difficulty in getting persons to wait on the sick as regular nurses, and the family were dependent for nursing almost entirely on the charities of their neighbors. A few families were particularly interested in their behalf, and spent much time in waiting on them. They were the first to take the fever. Typhoid fever struck down some of every family who had thus waited on the sick; and in every case when the disease entered a house it ran a regular course until the greater part, if not all of the household were attacked. These again became centres of radiation, and others who waited on them took the disease, and thus it continued to spread from house to house during the whole winter and the greater part of the following summer.

For more than two years it prevailed, preserving its distinct form in every instance, and not a single case occurred that could not be traced directly to its origin in contact with those who were suffering from typhoid fever. Bilious intermittent and remittent fever prevailed epidemically in this district during the autumnal part of each year, until finally bilious remittent and typhoid fever became merged into each other, and we had a mixed form of disease, with the typhoid type predominating. Here the disease ceased to become contagious.

I will here add, that the McCay family, in which the disease originated, suffered so much for want of attendance after it became evident that the disease was contagious, that there was no way of saving them except to break up the family and distribute them as places could be obtained among the neighbours; but they again communicated the fever to families whose humanity prompted them to take in the sufferers.

The disease found its way into the country, and in one family, consisting of the mother and three adult sons, the latter lay from five to seven weeks, all affected with a low grade of typhoid fever. These young men had four married sisters, settled each in a neighbourhood several miles distant from the homestead, and from each other. They all came at different times, as they could leave their homes, and waited on the sick during the progress of the fever. All of these sisters took the disease to their homes, and with their families suffered from typhoid fever, as their brothers had done; and again from these points typhoid fever radiated through their respective neighbourhoods.

Instances could be multiplied to a considerable extent, proving the contagious character of typhoid fever as it occurred in this vicinity, in connection with the visitation just related; but it would be only a repetition in substance of what has already been said.

Effects of the Bite of the Scolopendra heros (Centipede). Communicated by H. C. Wood, Jr., M. D., Prof. of Botany in the University of Pennsylvania.

Dear Doctor: I have recently received an account from a correspondent in Texas, Dr. G. LINCEIUM, of the effects of the bite of the centipede, which seems to me worthy of publication, as I have never met with a similar account before.

The species is the *Scolopendra heros*, Girard, which not unfrequently attains the length of eight inches, and a breadth of nearly an inch. Dr. Linceium is too well known to the lovers of natural science to necessitate my saying anything about his reliability; the language is his own.

"You wish me to give you as full an account of the symptoms following the bite of the centipede as I can, and ask me if I ever saw a case. Yes.

In the year 1850 I was called to a case six miles off, and when I arrived the little girl was dead. She had survived the bite five or six hours. The whole surface was dappled over with livid spots from the size of a dollar down to a five cent piece, and there was an elastic puffiness, giving the whole person an enlarged or fat appearance. She had been dead but a few minutes when I arrived, and felt so soft and lifelike, that I examined her very carefully, hoping I might find some indications that would encourage me to experiment a little, but the child was dead. The case occurred in this wise—the mother, Mrs. K., was combing her hair, and dropping her comb it fell through a crack in the floor near the wall. The little girl who was about four years old, went immediately out to search for the comb, and running her hand through the fence rail underpinning, the centipede, which had been attracted by the comb, and had not had time to get away, saw her little white fingers approaching the place where the comb had fallen, turned and made another plunge (for he is a beast of prey), and striking the child's thumb near the outer joint, ran up towards the hand, leaving a track on the thumb very similar to what a sharp, small spur would make were it rolled along on the skin. There were five little rosy holes made with the feet, and higher up on the thumb the grab of the caliper-like mandibles was plainly to be seen. The symptoms were, according to the mother's account, instant complaint, which grew rapidly worse, which was described by the child as being all over her. Vomiting of a pale yellow glairy matter supervened, which continued at short intervals with increasing violence, until the child, in a convulsive struggle, ceased to breathe.

Five other cases of centipede bites have occurred in this vicinity, none of whom died. The symptoms were the same as those described in the Keene child till the vomiting ensued; at this stage of its action the pain and suffering were checked in four of the cases; in the fifth case it was checked before it had run so far. The same remedies that will cure the bite of the rattlesnake seem to do no good in cases of centipede bite. From the Mexican Indians we have obtained the antidote, and it was that which was so successfully applied in the five cases named above. When properly prepared and administered, it entirely relieves the patient of all symptoms of poison in about four hours.

I did not see these cases myself, but they occurred close by, and I have no doubt as to their being correctly reported to me; two of them having occurred in the practice of my son Lucullus, who is a physician. The antidote is the roots of the *Tephrosia Virginiana*, boiled in milk (sweet milk) and taken in doses of half a teacupful, and repeated at intervals of fifteen or twenty minutes. A good handful of the root, as long as the hand is wide, pretty well bruised, and boiled in a quart or three pints of sweet milk, is about an average preparation; but when the bite is a bad one, has been done an hour or two, and the patient is of a robust constitution, the preparation should be liberal. Though the *tephrosia* is a powerful agent, and, if carried too far beyond the antagonistic action of the poison, is, I presume, not entirely without danger, I have never known any bad symptoms to arise from its use.

The scorpion is of no consequence at all. I said all that is necessary about him in my last letter to you. He travels over all parts of our houses, frequently dropping down upon us from the ceiling, and stinging us in bed. It frightens the women and children, but in all my long life,

it has never happened in the circle of my knowledge, that any serious injury resulted from the sting of the scorpion, and the scorpion I speak of now is the true one."

Fracture of the Internal Condyle of the Femur. By EDWARD M. CURTIS, M. D., of Brasher Falls, New York.

I am induced to report the following case of fracture of the internal condyle of the femur, more on account of the rarity of the accident—Prof. Hamilton, in his work on *Fractures and Dislocations*, only reporting two—than from any peculiarity attendant upon this particular case.

April 23, 1866. David Nevin, æt. fifty, good constitution, temperate habits, and powerful frame, was thrown from his carriage, striking on his right heel, the limb going between the tug and the thill, his body bending inward under the horse, which trampled upon him; he stopped the animal without help and extricated himself. Had severe pain at the knee-joint, and on attempting to step upon the right foot the limb bent inward.

Dr. C. H., being near at hand, was called, and says: The limb was but little swollen; two inches above the joint on the inside there was slight ecchymosis, underneath this, in the popliteal space, quite a prominence could be felt, and on pressing upon it he detected crepitus; the external side of the limb appeared normal, and there was no shortening or malposition of the foot; the patient would not allow him to bend the joint on account of pain. By steady pressure on the projecting point the fracture was reduced, and the patient expressed himself as much relieved. Applied compresses and straight splint.

25th. I was called in consultation with Dr. B., and requested to take charge of the case. Swelling great, pain inconsiderable, much tenderness and some ecchymosis on internal but none on external aspect of joint. Placed the limb in fracture-box with compresses underneath and internal to the fractured condyle.

30th. Limb looks well, swelling much the same, pain seems increasing; cold water dressings had been used; ordered tr. arnica. Bowels constipated, some torpidity of bladder, gave salts and buchu.

May 3. Fracture keeps in place; patient looks well, rests well, and has a good appetite.

9th. Strapped the limb on a double-inclined plain with side pieces for the femur, and compresses as before; bent the knee to an angle of 165° and kept it there half an hour; he complained of a sensation as of some foreign substance within the joint that would not allow it to bend.

June 7. Since the above date the limb has been bent more and more daily, and kept so as long as the patient could bear, and now he can bend it to an angle of 95° without the aid of the splint. He has walked with crutches for the first time to-day.

August 25. Saw Mr. Nevin to-day, he was walking with the aid of a cane, and could bend the knee to something less than a right angle; says it is nearly as strong as ever, but the joint is considerably larger than the left.

Wound of the Abdomen and Intestine, &c.; Recovery. By H. C. MATHIS, M. D., of Taylorsville, Ky.

May 8, 1866. Called to see Barney, coloured man, who in a fray had received the following wounds, made with a pocket-knife. First, one directly across the throat about four inches long, dividing skin, muscles, and fascia,

down to the vessels, but injuring none of the latter. Second. A punctured wound in right chest, dividing all the tissues down to the pleura. Third. A cut upon the back, beginning a few inches to the right of spine, just below the short ribs, passing diagonally across the spine and ribs to the left and upward, dividing all soft tissues, cutting across the angle of the left scapula, and dividing the latissimus dorsi, making a wound twelve inches or more in length, and five inches wide. Fourth. A punctured wound in back, just below right scapula, but not opening the cavity of the chest. The dangerous wound was in the abdomen and one-half inch below and to the left of the umbilicus. This was diagonal and one and three-quarter inches long, through which had been forced upon the ground four and a half feet or more of the ileum, which was much congested and swollen. The intestine was cut in two places about nine inches apart, from which the contents issued. Shock considerable, but was subsiding on my arrival. Patient made very little complaint of pain; vomited twice freely during the manipulation for return of the intestine. It was necessary to cleanse the bowels of dirt and their own secretions, which was effected with a soft cloth and tepid water. The wounds of the intestine were then closed by the uninterrupted silk suture, four stitches in one and five in the other. The bowels were replaced with much difficulty, through so small an opening, in about two hours. The external wounds were drawn together with ordinary sutures. Compress and bandage placed over wound in abdomen. Put to bed with water dressings to wounds; comfortable and easy; pulse 72 and moderately full. Ordered perfect quietude, *no food*; one small dose morphia given to moderate peristaltic action and anticipate sickness and pain.

9th. No reaction; some pain; bowels swollen, but not tender. Ordered ice to bowels, morphia every four or six hours; no food. Wound of throat healing by first intention, not the slightest inflammation about it.

10th. Vomited this morning; no reaction; pulse 80; bowels soft, without soreness; wounds doing well. Some sutures removed. Ordered abstinence from food, quietude; repeat morphia; ice.

11th. Pain in bowels; disposed to vomit; had not rested well. Removed bandage from abdomen; wound pouting, put on a larger compress, fearing the stricture might be at the abdominal wound. Stercoraceous vomiting came on while doing so. Pulse 90. Left him till 12th without ordering anything.

12th. Had suffered so much pain a dose of morphia was given without direction. Bowels soft; no tenderness; pulse 90; frequent sharp griping pains, and stercoraceous vomiting. Believed now that there was stricture from spasm or intussusception. Ordered that he should have no morphia whatever for twenty-four hours, and oil to be given about 2 o'clock A. M. It was hoped that the bowels, if left to themselves, might overcome the spasm, or the intussusception, if but slight. Was absent not more than an hour, when messenger came saying, "Barney's bowels had bursted." I found that during a severe pain a *bursting noise* came from his bowels, like the bursting of an inflated bladder, which was very alarming to patient and nurses. But still all was quiet; pulse a little less frequent; bowels soft; no tenderness; no pain. To continue ice; give oil as directed, knowing that if obstruction was overcome the bowels would soon act.

13th. Bowels acted early last night, and again from oil. All quiet; pulse 72; wants to eat. Remove ice; give nothing yet this day.

14th. External wounds nearly all healed.

15th. Permitted a little food, the first since the injury. From this time all went well, and the tenth day, contrary to directions, he was up and some miles away sawing wood. The fourteenth day I saw him well and hearty. He continues well at this date, June 25th.

DOMESTIC SUMMARY.

Removal of the Uterus and both Ovaries by Abdominal Section—Death from Shock in three hours.—Prof. CHARLES A. POPE records (*St. Louis Med. and Surg. Journal*, July and August, 1866) a case of this.

The patient was 47 years of age, and the mother of three children. The tumour in the left iliac region was first observed 20 years ago, since when it has gradually increased in size. Two years ago she noticed a tumour on the right side, which has since rapidly enlarged, until of greater size than the first.

Dr. Pope made "an incision along the linea alba, from the umbilicus to pubes. A large vein having been opened, and bleeding freely, I applied ligatures to the cut extremities. The peritoneum was reached and divided, so that I now passed in my hand and explored the tumours. There were some superficial adhesions which were easily overcome, but I found much resistance posteriorly. The uterus was readily recognized as forming the connection between the twin tumours constituted by the enlarged and diseased ovaria. Finding the tumour much too large to pass through the external incision, with a large trocar and canula, I tapped the right sac, and drew off a quantity of thin, puriform liquid; but, owing to the clogging of the tube, I could not empty the sac. I therefore made, with the bistoury, an incision sufficiently free to permit the passage of numerous large flocculi and fibrinoid concretions. Tapping was also performed on the left sac, the liquid from which was thick and purulent, and emitted a heavy, fetid, and sickening odour. The general mass, although now much reduced, could not yet be brought out through the external opening; so that the incision of the linea alba was prolonged for two and a half inches above the umbilicus. In the depression between the uterus and left ovary, the small intestine was firmly adherent, as was also the sigmoid flexure of the colon, quite extensively. By occasional touches of the knife, but mainly by the finger-nails and tearing, I succeeded in detaching them. Some oozing hemorrhage followed, but not considerable, and it was soon arrested. But the worst adhesions were posteriorly and below. These I overcame as far as I could; but the tumours dipping deep into the pelvis, and the patient becoming very feeble, I deemed it best to remove what I could, and with the large mass out of the way, to detach, if possible, any remaining portion of the cysts. With some difficulty I included within the long chain of an *écraseur*, with a curved extremity—which admitted of a lower embrace of the parts than was possible with a straight instrument—the thick mass of tissues, whose neck (for there was no pedicle) was nearly of the diameter of the pelvis. As this chain was forced down into the pelvic cavity and tightened, I drew up through its loop all that I could of these lowest portions of the sacs; but I found it impossible to include them entirely, a small part of each being left behind. The chain was made to divide the tissues within its grasp very slowly; and such was their resistance and quantity, that the strength of the instrument was taxed almost to its maximum. There was no hemorrhage. Clearing out the abdominal and pelvic cavities, and detaching what I could of the small remnants of the sacs, one of which was firmly adherent to the bladder, I replaced the intestines, which had protruded and caused some inconvenience during the operation, and then brought the external wound well and accurately together by wire sutures. A broad body bandage was placed about the abdomen, and the patient was lifted to her bed. She soon recovered from the effects of the chloroform, and seemed to bear the formidable operation as well as the most of my ovariectomized patients. I ordered some

brandy toddy, with forty drops of laudanum. Although very feeble, she conversed with her husband, and seemed still hopeful. I, however, informed Mr. L. that I had not the slightest expectation of her recovery, and that she might die very soon. No reaction occurred, notwithstanding stimulants and external warmth, and the patient continuing to sink, ceased to breathe in three hours after the operation. No post-mortem examination was allowed.

"On examining the removed mass, I found the whole uterus, with the exception of a very small portion of the neck. Its walls were greatly thickened, and occupied by numerous fibroid tumours, varying in size from a pea to a large walnut. One of these about the fundus, and as large as a pullet's egg, was almost entirely calcified. The uterine cavity was but little changed, and was occupied by a small flat mucous polypus attached to the fundus. The two sacs were closely adherent to the sides of the uterus, their walls being a quarter of an inch thick, and the lining membrane presenting the appearance of a mucoid, or rather of a pyogenic tissue, particularly that of the left side. The whole mass—tumour, sacs, and contents would, I suppose, weigh from twenty to twenty-five pounds.

"In reviewing the case, I must say, that had I foreseen its exact nature and difficulties, I certainly would not have operated. But how impossible is it, even for the most experienced, to foretell all the complications of such and similar cases."

Successful Ligation of External Iliac Artery with Silver Wire.—Dr. C. H. MARTIN records (*New Orleans Med. & Surg. Journ.*, Sept. 1866), a case of a coloured man, fifty-three years of age, who had a large fusiform aneurism of the left groin, which pulsated violently, and accompanied with great oedema of the thigh, leg, and foot. "The tumour, passing from under Poupart's ligament, had extended downward, until it protruded into the saphenous opening, lifting up the falciform process of the fascia lata, the crescentic edge of which process, stretched across the tumour, marked it with a distinct sulcus. The artery, from above the epigastric and circumflex ilii arteries, to considerably below the point from which the profunda leaves the femoral, was the seat of an aneurismal tumour."

On the 9th of June Dr. M. ligated the iliac artery "through a line of incision beginning at a point a little outside of the upper and outer edge of the external ring, and extending to a point in a line drawn from the anterior superior spine of the ilium to the umbilicus, and two and a half inches from that process. The incision passed in a plane parallel to the fibres of the tendon of the external oblique muscle, and was just five inches in length. After having cut through the integuments, together with the three muscles, the fascia transversalis was uncovered. I did not cut through this fascia at the point where it was first exposed, but with my hand gently passed between it and the muscle of the same name, I reached a point near the brim of the true pelvis, where the peritoneum leaves this fascia, to be reflected backward over the pelvic viscera. Here a small space is found, filled with cellular tissue, and at this point the fascia was opened, without injury to the peritoneum. Having reached this subfascial space, so to speak, by gently introducing the hand the peritoneum may be lifted upward from the psoas muscle, and the vessel exposed.

"The greatest difficulty in the operation is the opening of the sheath of the vessel, which consists more truly of a mass of dense fibro-cellular tissue, binding the artery and vein close together, than a true arterial sheath. This renders the passage of the aneurismal needle around the artery both difficult and dangerous. I, however, succeeded in opening this, and, separating the vessels, passed from within outward a silver wire (No. 32, of the silversmith's gauge) around the external iliac, at a point half an inch below the bifurcation of the iliac proper. This wire was secured by a double knot; the ends, cut close to the knot, were bent down and returned into the cellular sheath. All pulsation ceased in the tumour immediately upon the knot being drawn, previous to which time it had been intensely violent. The wound was now closed by three sutures of gilded annealed iron wire, which were passed deeply through the integuments and the three muscles, while the space intermediary between these sutures was closely united by pin sutures passed through the skin alone."

On the 14th of July, the patient was walking about, his limb had assumed its natural appearance, the tumour had disappeared.

"Upon the point," says Dr. M., "of ligating so large a vessel as the iliac with a metallic thread, and leaving the same to become encysted around the artery, I am not aware that it has ever before been successfully performed. In 1859 Dr. Stoue, of New Orleans, tied the common iliac, for a case of aneurism of the external iliac, with a silver thread; but, unfortunately, his patient died on the twenty-sixth day after the operation, from some disease of the bowels, consequently offering no satisfactory results as to the use of metallic threads in these operations. If it can be established as a safe procedure (and I have no hesitation in saying that it can be), we have gained much in being enabled to close the wound by the first intention, thus lessening the chance of inflammation, suppuration, hernia, and, not least of all, secondary hemorrhage. This usually takes place at the time when the ligature ulcerates through the coats of the artery, and the impetus of the heart's force impelling the blood against the clot, an opening is forced in the weakened tissue of the vessel, and hemorrhage is the result. However, when the metallic thread has been used, and not tied so tight as to rupture the coats of the vessel, ulceration, if it does occur, is at least retarded, until the clot on the proximal side has in a measure become organized, and the vessel obliterated. There being no clot formed on the distal side of the ligature, even should this ligature be late in coming away, and the proximal side perfectly closed by clot, or even obliterated, we still have danger of hemorrhage at the time the ligature separates, dependent upon a recurrent circulation through the sack of the aneurism.

"However, should we have been fortunate enough to place upon the vessel a ligature of some substance which will be slow in producing ulceration, or perhaps not cause it at all, but lie harmless in the tissues, we at least lessen the chances of hemorrhage, and convert a hitherto grave operation into one of comparatively little danger. Even with the advantages offered by these ligatures, it must not be considered that they are entirely free from danger, or that I am disposed, under all circumstances, to advocate their use."

Gunshot Fracture of the Skull.—Prof. T. G. RICHARDSON relates (*New Orleans Med. and Surg. Journ.*, July, 1866) the following case of this:—

"A. B., æt. 24, admitted into Jackson Hospital, June, 1864. The day previous, at the battle of Cold Harbor, he had been struck upon the head by a minie ball, which entered the left temporal bone just in front of the top of the ear, and passed out through the frontal bone, about half an inch to the left of the middle of the forehead. The differential appearances of the opening of entrance and exit commonly observed in penetrating wounds of the skull, were well marked; the former being almost circular, but little larger than the ball, and its edges strongly inverted; the latter quite large, irregular, and the bony and cutaneous edges everted and ragged. Cerebral substance, coagulated blood, and fragments of bone were also protruding from the latter. Further examination showed that two lines of fracture extended between the openings, one above and the other below, the latter involving the orbital process of the frontal bone, so that upon taking hold of the supra-orbital arch with the fingers and thumb the fragment, embracing about one-third of the frontal bone, could be readily moved in any direction to the distance of a fourth of one inch or more. The man reported that he had been stunned by the blow, but soon recovered his consciousness and walked to the rear. At the time of my visit, twenty-four hours after the accident, his intellect was not in the least disturbed, pulse and respiration good, no paralysis, no headache, the left eye closed by extravasated blood and oedematous tumefaction. My attention was called to the mobility of the lower half of the frontal bone, upon the corresponding side, of which I fully satisfied myself by raising and depressing it with the fingers, and could plainly trace the line of the upper fracture in this way. No operation was thought advisable, not even the removal of the loose spiculæ of bone, but cloths wrung out of cold water were ordered to be kept constantly applied. Under this treatment the case progressed favorably; the wounds suppurated freely, fragments of skull and an abundance of broken-down brain substance were dis-

charged, the swelling about the eye subsided, and at the end of a week or ten days I found the man sitting up reading a newspaper, and was told that he had not had an unfavourable symptom. In four weeks from the time of the injury, he left the hospital for his home in Georgia, the opening in front of the ear having entirely closed, and the one in the forehead very much contracted, and secreting but a small amount of healthy pus. The sight of the left eye was lost."

Prof. B. maintains that in the treatment of compound, and more especially of gun-shot fractures of the skull, "in the vast majority of cases the only operative procedure" that seems to him justifiable is the removal of loose foreign substances when these can be reached without penetrating too far into the cavity. He insists that instruments "should not be used, simply because there is depressed bone, or even when the depression is attended with symptoms of compression of the brain. Cold water, applied by means of the drip or cloths constantly wetted, until the period of active inflammation is passed, will accomplish all that lies in the surgeon's power. Subsequent results, such as necrosis of bone, epilepsy, etc., are of course not here taken into consideration, and are not sufficiently frequent to govern the primary management."

Amblyopia produced by Osmic Acid.—Dr. HENRY D. NOYES records (*New York Medical Journal*, July, 1866) the following case of this:—

"In June, 1863. Dr. P., assistant in a chemical laboratory, came into my office, stating that he had been suddenly made blind in the left eye in the following manner. He was heating in a crucible a compound of iridium and osmium. He took out a bit of the metal with a pair of forceps for closer inspection, and though aware of the poisonous properties of the fumes, incautiously held it near the left eye. Immediately struck with a sharp pain, he shut the eye and drew back. In ten minutes he came into my office. The lids were spasmodically closed, light very distressing, and pain in the globe severe. The conjunctiva and sclera were intensely injected, and lachrymation profuse. Pupil of natural size and activity. Sight dim, viz., $\frac{1}{3}$, and reads only No. 3, of Jaeger at ten inches. All objects look dim. This dimness is not the effect of lachrymation, because wiping away the tears does not better the vision. Accommodation perfect. There are no muscæ nor phosphenes; the visual field normal. By the ophthalmoscope, both the inverted and upright image, no material change discovered. The media clear, the optic nerve pink, but not unlike the other eye.

"The external inflammatory symptoms continued for one day, and then the eye resumed its normal condition, both in appearance and function.

"Dr. P. informed me that a similar accident had once before occurred to him, and that he had seen an account of such an occurrence to a Russian chemist.

"The impaired sight was not the effect of the irritation of the conjunctiva, because an equal degree may be excited by the presence of a foreign particle, without any amblyopia. Dr. P. and myself were both convinced that a peculiar poisonous influence was exerted on the retina, produced in a marvellously short time, by the simple contact for only an instant of the irritating fumes of osmic acid with the surface of the globe."

Tumour of the Left Optic Thalamus.—The *Boston Med. and Surg. Journ.*, (April 26) contains a brief notice by Dr. MORRILL WYMAN, of an interesting case of this in a girl. The patient first showed some mental disturbance in June last; in July and August she was dull at times, at others excitable and wilful; at the same time she could not write well; then vision was disturbed. This was followed by a general affection of the right side of the body, arm, leg, and tongue, the latter being thrust out obliquely. For the past two months the nausea, which has existed from early in the disease, has been very severe, especially in the morning. Pain in the forehead, severe at times, and occasionally giddiness, followed by loss of consciousness for about five minutes, never attended by convulsions. During one of these attacks, rather longer than usual, she died, November 27th.

The examination of the brain was made by my brother, Prof. Jeffries Wyman, yesterday, and the results were very interesting; they are, in short, as follows:

Nothing peculiar was observed until the ventricles were opened, when a larger quantity of fluid than usual escaped, of a natural colour. On laying the ventricles fully open, it was seen at once that they were not symmetrical; the left was much larger than the right. The floor was rounded out, and the distinction between the optic thalamus and the corpus striatum of the left side was almost completely effaced. The plexus choroides of the left side ran obliquely across the floor of the ventricle over the rounded mass, and was quite different from that of the right; it formed, instead of the symmetrical V-shape, another $\wedge$, with one arm much longer and more oblique than the other. The fornix was pushed far to the right of the median line; measured across the floor of the ventricle the left was $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches and the other $\frac{1}{4}$ inch. In cutting through the mass the corpus striatum (left) was pushed quite out from its natural position, and the disease seemed to be in the optic thalamus only, which measured $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches in depth and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches in width, and was made up of a lardaceous-looking mass, which cut with much more firmness than the natural substance. The whole mass was as large as an ordinary sized hen's egg, and was somewhat of that shape.

I omitted to state that the layer of epithelium lining the left ventricle was thickened, and of a velvety, almost flocculent look, especially at its anterior part.

Comparison of the Right and Left Clavicle.—Dr. J. WYMAN alluded, at a meeting of the Boston Society for Medical Improvement (April 23), to the want of symmetry in the clavicles of the two sides of the body, and presented the following table as the result of the comparison of the several parts:—

PAIRS OF CLAVICLES.	LENGTH.		WEIGHT.	
	Right.	Left.	Right.	Left.
I.	5.35	5.70	20.150	23.100
II.	5.64	5.64	27.720	20.350
III.	5.55	5.50	24.150	22.540
IV.	5.40	5.57	10.410	10.240
V.	5.55	5.73	17.320	17.290
VI.	5.45	5.73	29.750	30.700
VII.	6.27	6.40	19.800	20.800
VIII.	5.94	5.94	27.200	24.850
IX.	5.86	5.86		

Length in inches and one-hundredths. Weight in grammes.

Maximum length, 6.40 inches.	Maximum weight, 30.700.
Minimum " 5.35 "	Minimum " 10.240.

Right clavicle longest in 1 pair; left in 5; clavicles equal in 3.

Right " heaviest in 5 pairs; left in 3.

Boston Med. and Surg. Journ., July 16, 1866.

Urachus Pervious after Birth.—Dr. G. J. TOWNSEND relates (*Boston Med. and Surg. Journ.*, Sept. 6, 1866) the following case of this: "I was asked to see a little negro five days old, of mixed parentage, and was told he was passing his water through his belly. On inspection, sure enough, every time the infant cried or made any great exertion, the urine bubbled freely from the umbilicus. The cord had separated normally, and the child was in every other respect vigorous and healthy. There was very evident ulceration of the surface, left by the separation of the cord. The question whether the urethra was pervious was solved at the time of the visit in the affirmative, a fair stream spirting forth *per vias naturales*.

"The presence of ulceration at the orifice of the abnormal duct rendered the process of obliterating it very simple. The ulcerated surface was freely cauterized, and the edges of the opening were brought into close apposition and kept there by a strip of adhesive plaster, firmly applied in a longitudinal direction. This was still further secured by a compress of cork covered with wash leather, and kept in place by being stitched to a close-fitting swathe.

"The presence of ulceration in this case may be thought to have some bearing

upon the question as to the manner in which the cord separates, whether by a process of ulceration or absorption. But the ulceration was evidently an accident here, and caused by the acrid fluid passing constantly over a new and delicate surface, and was healed at once by the arrest of the flow. The patient was well in four days, when the swathe was removed.

"Cases of this kind are believed to be very rare, the urachus shrivelling up in the human fœtus in the earlier stages of fœtal life."

Formula for Collodion.—Dr. J. P. MAYNARD, who originally introduced this article to the profession, gives (*Boston Med. & Surg. Journ.*, Aug. 9, 1866) the following formula for its preparation best adapted for surgical purposes:—

"Take two parts of sulph. acid, sp. gr. 1.850, and one part nitric acid, sp. gr. 1.450. Mix them—allow the temperature to fall to about 100 Fahrenheit. Add to this, raw cotton, to point of saturation. Let it soak about one to two hours. Pour off the acids. Wash the cotton till litmus paper shows all acidity removed. Dry thoroughly. The cotton will now be found to be converted into a gum, completely soluble in ether of about .750 sp. gr., or in pure ether 3 parts and alcohol 95 per cent. 1 part. About 2 ounces of cotton thus prepared will make about 1 pint of collodion of proper consistency for surgical purposes. For photographic objects, a less amount will be sufficient. The conditions for success by this formula are simply precision in the details and careful manipulation, which a little experience will perfect."

Hyposulphite of Soda in Malarial Fevers.—Dr. W. H. BAXTER, of Moscow, Iowa, writes to Prof. N. S. Davis that he was induced by Dr. Leavitt's statement in the No. of this Journal for April last as to the efficacy of the hyposulphite of soda in malarial fever to employ that article. In the last month, Dr. B. says he has treated "over one hundred cases of simple intermittent and remittent fever with this remedy alone, and in no case has there been an exacerbation after taking the remedy a reasonable length of time." He gave it in 15 grain doses in solution in water. He has not trusted to this remedy alone in pernicious or malignant types.

Treatment of Burns.—Dr. E. MENDENHALL, of Eaton, Ohio, extols (*Cincinnati Lancet and Observer*, Aug. 1866,) a mixture of one part of turpentine and two parts of sweet oil as an application to burns. This application he states to have proved more satisfactory in its results than any other he has ever used. This application is "easily procured and applied, and can be removed at any time with *facility and without pain*; and the soothing effects following the application of the oil and turpentine mixture are far more prompt and complete than any other we have ever known used. The calm feeling of comfort which *always follows* its application the first time, in the manner indicated, cannot, we think, be ascribed to the opiate given at the same time. The result is *too speedy and decisive*; and the anodyne, although necessary, as we think, to quiet the agitation, and arouse the system from the effects of 'nervous shock' would hardly allay the smarting, burning, and excruciating pains succeeding such extensive lesions, even if given in much larger doses. We believe this will be the conclusion of any one who will give these agents a fair trial."

I N D E X.

A.

Abdomen, penetrating wound of, 429
 ———, wound of, 577
 Abscess, lumbar, 79
 ——— of brain, 413
 ——— of kidneys, 133
 ——— of liver, 127
 Acupressure for controlling hemorrhage, 67
 Acupuncture needle for detecting ball, 287
 Acute epididymitis, 78
 Adams, modern methods of dealing with
 cataract, 253
 Addison's disease, 533
 Albuminuria, diagnosis between nervous and
 organic, 533
 Allaire, chronic urethritis, 549
 Amblyopia produced by osmic acid, 582
 American Medical Association, review of
 Transactions of, 163
 ——— Pharmaceutical Association, no-
 tice of proceedings of, 199
 Amputation at hip-joint, 17, 550
 ——— at the knee, 248
 ——— of foot, 552
 Anæsthesia, local, 227
 ———, new fluid for local, 283
 Anæsthetics in operations on eye, 553
 Aneurism, intra-orbital, 277
 ———, ligature of femoral artery for, 250
 Annandale, Malformations, Diseases, &c. of
 Fingers and Toes, notice of, 222
 Antagonism of chloroform and ether, 229
 Aphasia with right hemiplegia, 532
 Armstrong, cerebro-spinal meningitis, 279
 Ashhurst, clinical surgery, 66
 ———, obscure nervous disease, 130
 ———, strangulated hernia, 409
 Asthma, influence of sex and age on liability
 to, 534
 Atomized liquids, inhalation of, 362
 Atrophy and degeneration of muscles of ex-
 tremities, 532
 Atropia, poisoning by, 269
 Axillary artery, ligation of, 101

B.

Baldwin, spotted fever, 321
 Barnes, hemorrhage from uterus, 265
 Bartholow, Spermatorrhœa, notice of, 515
 ———, typhlitis and peri-typhlitis, 351
 Baxter, hyposulphite of soda in malarial
 fever, 584
 Beale, microscopical researches on cholera,
 528

Beck, enlargements of the uterus following
 abortion, &c., 266
 Bennett on restorative treatment of pneu-
 monia, 224
 Béraud's Atlas of Surgical Anatomy, 519
 Berenger-Féraud, ventilation in treatment
 of wounds, 550
 Bibliographical Notices—
 ——— Annandale on Malformations, &c. of
 the Fingers and Toes, 222
 ——— Bartholow on Spermatorrhœa, 515
 ——— Bennett, Restorative Treatment of
 Pneumonia, 224
 ——— Béraud's Atlas of Surgical Anatomy,
 519
 ——— Canniff's Principles of Surgery, 222
 ——— Cholera, its Pathology and Treat-
 ment, 185
 ——— Cholera, recent works on, 504
 ——— Budd, Cholera, 508
 ——— Fletcher, Cholera, 507
 ——— Hartshorne, Cholera, 506
 ——— Macpherson, Cholera in its Home,
 504
 ——— Palmer, Epidemic Cholera, 506
 ——— Read, Cholera, 507
 ——— Searle, Cholera, 508
 ——— Spitta, Cholera, 508
 ——— Cotting, Disease a Part of the Plan
 of Creation, 219
 ——— Curling, Diseases of the Testis, 519
 ——— Da Costa, Medical Diagnosis, 517
 ——— Echeverria, Reflex Paralysis, 511
 ——— Lee on Diseases of the Veins and
 Affections of the Rectum, 217
 ——— Medico-Chirurgical Transactions, 200
 ——— Pearce, Notes of Health, 518
 ——— Pereira's Materia Medica and Thera-
 peutics, 510
 ——— Pollock, Prognosis in Consumption,
 515
 ——— Proceedings of the American Phar-
 maceutical Association, 199
 ——— Report on Materials for the Medical
 and Surgical History of the Rebellion, 191
 ——— Reports of American Hospitals for
 the Insane, 192, 498
 ——— Schultze's Midwifery, 218
 ——— Snellen's Test-Types, 224
 ——— Streatfield, Posterior Staphyloma, 223
 ——— Transactions of American State Me-
 dical Societies, 489
 ——— Transactions of the Obstetrical So-
 ciety of London, 204
 ——— Ziegler on Nitrous Oxide, 221

- Bichloride of carbon, anæsthetic properties of, 230
 Bigelow, rhigolene for local anæsthesia, 283
 Bigham, shoulder presentation, version, 408
 Black cataract, 256
 Bladder, gunshot wound of, 118
 Blood, effusion of, in vitreous humour, 559
 Bloomingdale Asylum Report, notice of, 193
 Board, death from swallowing chloroform, 571
 Brain, abscess of, 413
 ———, tubercular tumours of, 115
 ———, tumour of, 134
 Brinton, ligation of axillary artery, 101
 Broadbent, new method of treatment of cancer, 547
 Bromide of potassium, action of, 524
 Brown, action of bromide of potassium on the nervous system, 524
 Brown-Séquard, transmission of impressions through spinal cord, 225
 Buck, acupuncture needle for detecting ball, 287
 Budd on Cholera, notice of, 508
 Burns, application to, 584
 Burrall on Asiatic Cholera, notice of, 185
- C.
- Cæsarean section under local anæsthesia, 227
 Cancer, new method of treatment, 547
 ——— of the liver, 417
 Canniff's Principles of Surgery, notice of, 222
 Cappie, congenital jaundice, 565
 Capsicum in delirium tremens, 241
 Cataract, modern method of dealing with, 253
 ———, black, 256
 ———, Von Graefe's treatment of, 554
 Centipede, effects of bite of, 575
 Central nervous organs, perivascular canals in, 522
 Cerebro-spinal meningitis, 55, 125, 279
 Cervical vertebra, dislocation of, 109
 Cervix uteri, division of, 566
 ———, epithelial tumours of, 266
 Chapman on Cholera, notice of, 185
 Chlorate of potash in ovarian disease, 564
 ——— quinia, 232
 Chloride of zinc, application of, to wounds, 252
 Chloroform and ether, antagonism of, 229
 ———, death from swallowing, 571
 ———, internal use of, in intermittent fever, 271
 Cholera, internal temperature in, 532
 ———, microscopical researches on, 528
 ———, notices of recent publications on, 185, 504
 Citrate of soda in diabetes, 543
 Citric acid for relief of pain in cancer, 253
 Clark, Lectures on Cholera, notice of, 185
 Clavicle, comparison of right and left, 583
 Collodion, formula for, 584
 Colotomy, lumbar, 251
 Compression in arterial hemorrhage, 107
 Consumption, prognosis in, 515
 Cooper, atrophy and degeneration of muscles of both extremities, 532
 Corlieu, diagnosis between nervous and organic albuminuria, 533
 Cornil, epithelial tumours of cervix uteri, 266
 Cotting, Disease a Part of the Plan of Creation, notice of, 219
 Craig, chlorate of potash in ovarian disease, 564
 Cruveilhier's paralysis, 237
 Crystalline lens, structure of, 524
 Curling, Diseases of the Testis, notice of, 519
 Curtis, fracture of internal condyle of femur, 577
- D.
- DaCosta's Medical Diagnosis, notice of, 517
 Damoiseau, influence of water in the production of milk, 524
 Davis, Parturition and its Difficulties, review of, 435
 Deglutition, mechanism of, 225
 Delirium tremens, capsicum in, 241
 ———, treatment of, 536
 Demarquay, therapeutic uses of oxygen, 525
 ———, umbilical hernia, 548
 Denny, citric acid for relief of pain in cancer, 253
 Diabetes, citrate of soda in, 543
 ———, review of Jordao on, 467
 Diarrhœa, chronic, cured by strychnia, 277
 Dickson, statistics of height and weight, 373
 Diphtheria, treatment of, 540
 Duncan, uterine hæmatocele, 565
 Durant, mudar in dysentery, 526
 Dysentery, mudar in, 526
- E.
- Ear and larynx, sympathy between, 236
 Eastern Lunatic Asylum of Kentucky Report, notice of, 194
 Echeverria on Reflex Paralysis, notice of, 511
 Elbow-joint, latero-angular dislocation of, 245
 Elson, effects of quinia on pulse, 97
 Embolism of renal, splenic, and cerebral arteries, 420
 Entero-colitis, 337
 Epidemic diseases, predisposing causes of, 39
 Epiglottis, growth from, 200
 Epithelial tumours of cervix uteri, 266
 Erigeron, oil of, in gonorrhœa, 117
 Erysipelatous laryngitis, 275
 Etherization, 415
 Evans, poisoning by stramonium, 278
 External iliac, ligature of, with silver wire, 580
 Extra-uterine foetation, 204
 Eyeball, vascular protrusions of, 200
 Eyelids, operation for cure of eversion of, 381
- F.
- Fatty liver in children, 235
 Fayrer, osteo-myelitis, 544
 Femoral artery, ligature of, for aneurism, 250
 Femur, gunshot wound of, 397
 ———, impacted fracture of, 244
 ———, fracture of internal condyle of, 577
 Fenner, sanitary condition of New Orleans during military occupation, 285
 Fibro-cartilages, and nerves of, 523
 Fleming, Cruveilhier's paralysis, 237
 Fletcher on Cholera, notice of, 507

Flint, Physiology of Man, review of, 171
 —, Principles and Practice of Medicine,
 review of, 137
 Foetus, causes of position of, 263
 Foot, hygroma of, 242
 —, Symes's amputation of, 552
 Fox, wheat phosphates, 526
 —, sympathy between ear and larynx, 236
 Fractures of forearm, resection for ununited,
 105
 — femur, impacted, 244
 — humerus, 77
 — ribs, arm, leg, &c., 422
 — skull, 72
 Frankford Asylum Report, notice of, 192
 Freeman, intra-orbital aneurism, 277
 Frommuller, subcutaneous injections, 241

G.

Gall-stone of cholesterine, 430
 Gant, impacted fracture of femur, 244
 —, latero-angular dislocation of right el-
 bow-joint, 245
 Gastrotomy in ruptured uterus, 287, 401
 Gibb, growth from epiglottis, 200
 Glaucoma, iridectomy in, 257
 Gonorrhœa, new remedy in, 117
 Gordon, rupture of uterus, 562
 —, tetanus of uterus, 265
 Gorrequer-Griffith, evulsion of umbilical
 cord, 564
 Gray, dislocation of fifth cervical vertebra,
 109
 Greenhalgh, antagonism of chloroform and
 ether, 229
 —, iodized cotton, 231
 Greenhow, Addison's disease, 533
 Guinier, paracentesis thoracis, 252
 Gunshot wound, with removal of rim of ace-
 tabulum, &c., 282
 Gunshot wound of femur, 397
 — shoulder, 433
 —, fracture of skull, 581
 Guyot-Danneey, citrate of soda in diabetes,
 543

H.

Hæmaturia, intermittent, 202
 Hæmostatic ethers, 230
 —, persulphate of iron as, 106
 Hall, fatal peritonitis, 415
 Hancock, Symes's amputation of foot, 552
 Harlan, tumours of larynx, 122
 Hart, inhalation of atomized liquids, 362
 Hartshorne on Cholera, notice of, 506
 Harvey, united twins, 403
 Haughton, change of type, 389
 Head, gunshot injuries of, 83
 Heat, latent, of animal bodies, 522
 Hemorrhage arrested by styptics and com-
 pression, 405
 — from uterus, perchloride of iron
 in, 265
 Hemorrhagic erosion of gastric mucous mem-
 brane, 422
 Heyfelder, hygroma of foot, 242
 Hip-joint, amputation at, 550
 Hiss, perivascular canals in central nervous
 system, 522
 Holmes, lumbar colotomy, 251
 Humerus, fractures of, 77

Hutchinson, cerebro-spinal meningitis, 125
 —, tumour of brain, 134
 —, embolism of renal, splenic, and
 cerebral arteries, 420
 Hubbard, early menstruation, 565
 Hygroma of foot, 242
 Hypodermic injections, 371
 Hyposulphite of soda in scarlet fever, 287
 — malarial fever, 584
 Hysteria, subcutaneous injections in, 241

I.

Ileum, ulcer of, 200
 Illinois State Medical Society's Transactions,
 489
 Indiana Hospital for Insane Report, notice
 of, 501
 — State Medical Society Transactions,
 notice of, 496
 Ingram, biography of, 287
 Inhalation of atomized liquids, 362
 Insanity, new remedial agents for, 239
 Intermittent fever, internal use of chloro-
 form in, 271
 — hæmaturia, 202
 Intra-orbital aneurism cured by compression,
 277
 Iodized cotton, 231
 Iowa Hospital for Insane Report, notice of,
 501
 Iridectomy in glaucoma, 257
 Iron, action of preparations of, on teeth, 232
 Isham, ligature of primitive iliac, 282

J.

Jackson, removal of both ovaries, 111
 Jaundice, congenital, 565
 Jaws, putrid infection from simple fractures
 of, 243
 Johnson on Cholera, notice of, 185
 —, smell, sense of, applied to diagnosis,
 237
 —, treatment of delirium tremens, 536
 Jones, iridectomy in glaucoma, 257
 —, resection of both bones of forearm for
 ununited fracture, 105
 —, substance resembling quinia in ani-
 mal tissues, 521
 Jordao, Diabetes, review of, 467
 Junker, nyctalopia, 559

K.

Karell, milk cure, 540
 Keiller, rupture of uterus, 563
 Kempf, cerebro-spinal meningitis, 55
 Kempster, entero-colitis, 337
 Kidneys, cystic abscess of, 133
 King's County (N. Y.) Lunatic Asylum Re-
 port, notice of, 198
 Knee, amputation at, 248
 Krishaben, mechanism of deglutition, 225

L.

Lachrymal gland, removal of, 559
 Laryngotomy, 275
 Larynx, tumours of, 122
 Latent heat of animal bodies, 522
 Laurence, removal of lachrymal gland, 559
 Lee, Diseases of Veins and Rectum, notice
 of, 217

- Leclerc, mercurial collodion for syphilitic patches, 552
 Lender, poisoning by water hemlock, 269
 Levick, sunstroke treated by ice, 573
 —, abscess of brain, 413
 Ligaments, vessels and nerves of, 523
 Ligature of external iliac with silver wire, 580
 — femoral artery for aneurism, 250
 — primitive iliac artery, 282
 Linné, action of nareeine, 525
 Lipoma of spermatic cord, 242
 Liver, abscess of, 127
 —, cancer of, 417
 —, fatty, 235
 Longview Asylum Report, notice of, 500
 Lumbar colotomy, 251
 Lyons, capsicum in delirium tremens, 241
 —, chlorate of quinia, 232
- M.**
- Macpherson, Cholera in its Home, notice of, 504
 Maisch, active principle of rhus toxicodendron, 285
 Malarial fever, hyposulphate of soda in, 584
 Malignant disease, 425
 Marchant, poisoning by tobacco-juice, 571
 Marey, myograph, 524
 Martin, ligature of external iliac with silver wire, 580
 Marzattini, lipoma of spermatic cord, 242
 Mathis, wounds of abdomen, &c., 577
 Matson, sycois menti, 276
 Maury, hypodermic injections, 371
 Mayer, poisoning by petroleum, 269
 Maynard, collodion, 584
 McClellan, internal use of chloroform in intermittent fever, 271
 McKeand, effusion of blood in vitreous humour, 559
 McLean Asylum Report, notice of, 196
 McSherry's cases, 397
 Medico-Chirurgical Transactions, notice of, 200
 Mendenhall, application to burns, 584
 Menstruation, early, 565
 Mercurial collodion for syphilitic patches, 552
 Merrill, predisposing causes of epidemic diseases, 39
 Milk cure, 540
 —, influence of water in the production of, 524
 Miner, gunshot wound of hip, 282
 Mitchell, gall-stone of cholesterine, 430
 Moon, gunshot injuries of head, 83
 Moorman, spotted fever, 386
 More, dilatation of perineum, 560
 Morton, amputation at hip joint, 17
 —, cancer of ilium, 200
 Motor nerves, termination of, in muscles, 523
 Mount Hope Institution for Insane, notice of report, 498
 Mudar in dysentery, 526
 Muscles, termination of motor nerves in, 523
 Myocarditis diagnosed during life, 233
 Myograph, 524
- N.**
- Nareeine, action of, 525
 Nervous disease, 130
 Neuromata, multiple, 243
 Neurosis, vesico-urethral, 398
 Newton, new remedial agent in insanity, 239
 New Hampshire Asylum for Insane, notice of report, 502
 New Jersey State Lunatic Hospital at Trenton, notice of report, 498
 New Orleans, sanitary condition during military occupation, 285
 New York City Lunatic Asylum Report, notice of, 502
 — State Asylum for Insane Convicts, notice of reports, 503
 North, hyposulphite of soda in scarlet fever, 287
 Northern Ohio Lunatic Asylum Report, notice of, 193
 Noyes, amblyopia produced by osmic acid, 582
 Nunneley, vascular protrusions of eyeball, 200
 Nyctalopia, 559
- O.**
- Obstetrical Society of London, review of Transactions, 204
 Ohio Central Lunatic Asylum Report, notice of, 499
 — Longview Asylum Report, notice of, 500
 — Southern Lunatic Asylum Report, notice of, 500
 Ophthalmica epidemica at Yokohama, 98
 Optic thalamus, tumours of, 582
 Orbit, punctured wound of, 427
 Osmic acid, amblyopia produced by, 582
 Osteo-myelitis, 544
 Ovarian disease, chlorate of potash in, 564
 Ovaries, removal of both, 111
 Ovariectomy under local anæsthesia, 227
 Oxygen, therapeutic uses of, 525
- P.**
- Packard, etherization, 415
 —, strangulated hernia, 412
 Palmer on Epidemic Cholera, notice of, 506
 Pannus, treatment of, 262
 Paracentesis thoracis, 252
 Pathological Society of Philadelphia, proceedings of, 119, 417
 Pearse, notice of Notes on Health, 518
 Pepper, extensive malignant disease, 425
 —, fractures of ribs, arm, &c., 422
 —, gunshot wound of shoulder, 433
 —, hemorrhagic erosion of gastric mucous membrane, 422
 —, hepatic abscess, 127
 —, penetrating wound of abdomen, 429
 —, punctured wound of orbit entering brain, 427
 —, tubercular meningitis in adult, 418
 —, vesical calculus, 119
 Perchloride of iron, injections of solution of, for uterine hemorrhage, 265
 Pereira's Materia Medica, abridged, notice of, 510
 Perineum, dilatation of, 560
 Peritonitis, fatal, 415
 Peri-typhlitis, 351
 Persulphate of iron as an hæmostatic, 106
 Petroleum, poisoning by, 269

Phlegmasia of right arm in male, 398
 Pneumonia, treatment of, 538
 Poisoning by petroleum, 269
 ——— atropia, 269
 ——— stramonium, 278
 ——— tobacco-juice, 571
 ——— water hemlock, 269
 Pollock, Prognosis in Consumption, notice of, 515
 Pope, removal of uterus and both ovaries, 579
 Port Royal senna, 527
 Poultices, use and abuse of, 527
 Prettyman, new remedy in gonorrhœa, 117
 Prince, operation for inversion of eyelids, 381
 Proctor, organic impurities in water, 568
 Pulse, Salisbury's experiments on, 92
 ———, effects of quinia, &c. on, 92
 Putrid infection from simple fracture of jaw, 243

Q.

Quaglino and Scarenzio, syphilitic affections of eye, 262
 Quinia, substance resembling, in animal tissues, 521

R.

Radeliffe, myocarditis, 233
 Radford, laceration of uterus, 561
 Read, Is Cholera Contagious? notice of, 507
 Rectum, Lee on Diseases of, notice of, 217
 Retina, detachment of, 558
 Reviews—
 ——— Davis on Parturition and its Difficulties, 435
 ——— Flint's Physiology of Man, 171
 ——— Flint's Principles and Practice of Medicine, 137
 ——— Jordao on Diabetes, 467
 ——— Roberts, Treatise on Urinary and Renal Diseases, 181
 ——— Sims, Clinical Notes on Uterine Surgery, 481
 ——— Transactions of the American Medical Association, 163
 Rhigolene for local anæsthesia, 283
 Rhus toxicodendron, active principle of, 285
 Richardson, gunshot fracture of skull, 581
 ———, hæmostatic ethers, 230
 ———, latent heat of animal bodies, 522
 ———, local anæsthesia, 227
 ———, treatment of diphtheria, 540
 ———, use and abuse of poultices, 527
 Richet, putrid infection, 243
 Roberts, treatise on urinary and renal diseases, 181
 Roosa, catarrhal inflammation of cavity of tympanum, 62
 Rothrock, contagiousness of typhoid fever, 574
 Rouget, termination of motor nerves in muscles, 523

S.

Salisbury on the pulse, 92
 Salter, influence of sex and age on liability to asthma, 534
 Samelson, dermoid tumours, 262
 ———, Graefe's treatment of pannus, 262
 ———, Von Graefe's eye clinic, 259

Samelson, Von Graefe's treatment of diseases of the conjunctiva and cornea, 261
 ———, ——— treatment of cataract, 554
 Sansom, anæsthetic properties of bichloride of carbon, 230
 Sanders, aphasia, 532
 Sappey, vessels and nerves of ligaments and cartilages, 523
 Sargent, arterial hemorrhage treated by compression, 107
 Scanzoni, causes of position of fœtus, 263
 Scarenzio, syphilitic affections of the eye, 262
 Scarlet fever, hyposulphite of soda in, 287
 Schmid, poisoning by atropia, 269
 Schultze's Compendium of Midwifery, notice of, 218
 Scolopendra heros, effect of bite, 575
 Searle on Cholera, notice of, 508
 Sedgwick, local anæsthesia, 227
 Senna, Port Royal, 527
 Senses of temperature, touch, and pain, relation between, 226
 Sherfy, hemorrhage arrested by styptic and compression, 405
 Shoulder presentation, version, 408
 Shoyer, chronic diarrhœa cured by strychnia, 277
 Sibley, multiple neuromata, 243
 Sims on Uterine Surgery, review of, 481
 Skinner, death after vaccination, 239
 Skull, fractures of, 72
 ———, gunshot fracture of, 581
 ———, ——— injuries of, 83
 Smell, sense of, applied to diagnosis, 237
 Smith, action of preparations of iron on teeth, 232
 ———, treatment of pneumonia, 538
 Smyth, successful operation for subclavian aneurism, 280
 Snellen's Test-Types, notice of, 224
 Snow on Cholera, notice of, 185
 Spence, amputation of hip-joint for malignant tumour, 550
 Spencer, speedy means of purifying water, 268
 Spermatic cord, lipoma of, 242
 Spinal cord, disease of, with atrophy of muscles of extremities, 532
 ———, transmission of impressions through, 225
 Spitta on Cholera, notice of, 508
 Spotted fever, 321, 386
 Spring, relation between senses of temperature, touch, and pain, 226
 Statistics of height and weight, 373
 Steiner, fatty liver in children, 235
 Stramonium, poisoning by, 278
 Strangulated hernia, 409, 412
 Streffield on Posterior Staphyloma, notice of, 223
 Strychnia, chronic diarrhœa cured by, 277
 Styptics to arrest hemorrhage, 405
 Subclavian aneurism, 280
 Subcutaneous injections, 241
 Sulphite of soda in sycosis menti, 276
 Sunstroke treated by ice, 573
 Surgeon-General's Report of Materials for a Medical and Surgical History of the Rebellion, notice of, 191

Surgical fever, 75
 Sycosis menti, 276
 Syme, amputation at the knee, 248
 ———, ligature of femoral artery for aneurism, 250
 Syme's, amputation of foot, 552
 Sympathy between ear and larynx, 236
 Syphilitic affections of the eye, 262

T.

Teeth, action of preparations of iron on, 232
 Testis, Curling on Diseases of, notice of, 519
 Tetanus of uterus, 265
 Tilt, extreme surgical tendencies of pathologists, 566
 Tobacco-juice, poisoning by, 571
 Townsend, urachus pervious after birth, 583
 Transactions of the American Medical Association, review of, 163
 Tubercular meningitis in adult, 418
 ———, tumours of brain, 115
 Tuberculosis, inoculability of, 235
 Tumour of brain, 134
 Tumours of larynx, 122
 Twins, united, 403
 Tympanum, catarrhal inflammation of cavity of, 62
 Type, change of, 389
 Typhlitis, 351
 Typhoid fever, contagiousness of, 574
 Tyson, cystic abscess of kidneys, 133

U.

Umbilical cord, evulsion of, 564
 ———, hernia, 548
 ———, hemorrhage, 565
 Ununited fracture, resection of both bones of forearm for, 105
 Urachus, pervious after birth, 583
 Urethra, rupture of, 80
 ———, structure of, 80
 Urethritis, chronic, 549
 Uterine Surgery, review of Sims's, 481
 ———, hæmatocele, 565
 Uterus and both ovaries, removal of, 579
 ———, enlargements of, following abortions, &c., 266
 ———, hemorrhage from, 265
 ———, rupture of, gastrotomy, 287, 401, 561, 562
 ———, tetanus of, 265

V.

Vaccination, death after, 239
 Ventilation, treatment of wounds by, 550
 Vermont State Medical Society's Transactions, notice of, 492
 Vesical calculus, 119
 Vesico-intestinal fistula, lumbar colotomy for, 251
 Vesico-urethral neurosis, 398
 Villemin, inoculability of tuberculosis, 235
 Vitreous humour, effusion of blood in, 559
 Von Decker, structure of crystalline lens, 524
 Von Graefe's eye clinic, 259
 ———, treatment of diseases of conjunctiva and cornea, 261
 ———, cataract, 554

W.

Walton, black cataract, 256
 ———, detachment of retina, 558
 ———, ophthalmica epidemica, 98
 Washburn, gunshot wound of bladder, 118
 Water, speedy means of purifying, 268
 ———, hemlock, poisoning by, 269
 ———, influence of, in the production of milk, 524
 ———, organic impurities in, 568
 Weber, internal temperature in cholera, 532
 Wecker, anæsthetics in operations on eye, 553
 Western Lunatic Asylum of Virginia Report, notice of, 195
 Western Lunatic Asylum of Kentucky Report, notice of, 197
 Wetherby, persulphate of iron as an hæmostatic, 106
 Wheat phosphates, 526
 Whinery, rupture of uterus, gastrotomy, &c., 401
 Willett, rupture of uterus, gastrotomy, 287
 Williams, cancer of the liver, 417
 Wilson, erysipelatos laryngitis, 275
 Wisconsin State Hospital for the Insane Report, notice of, 195
 Wood, effects of bite of *Scolopendra heros*, 575
 Wounds, treatment of, by ventilation, 550
 Wyman, comparison of right and left clavicle, 583
 ———, tumours of optic thalamus, 582

Z.

Ziegler on Nitrous Oxide, notice of, 221

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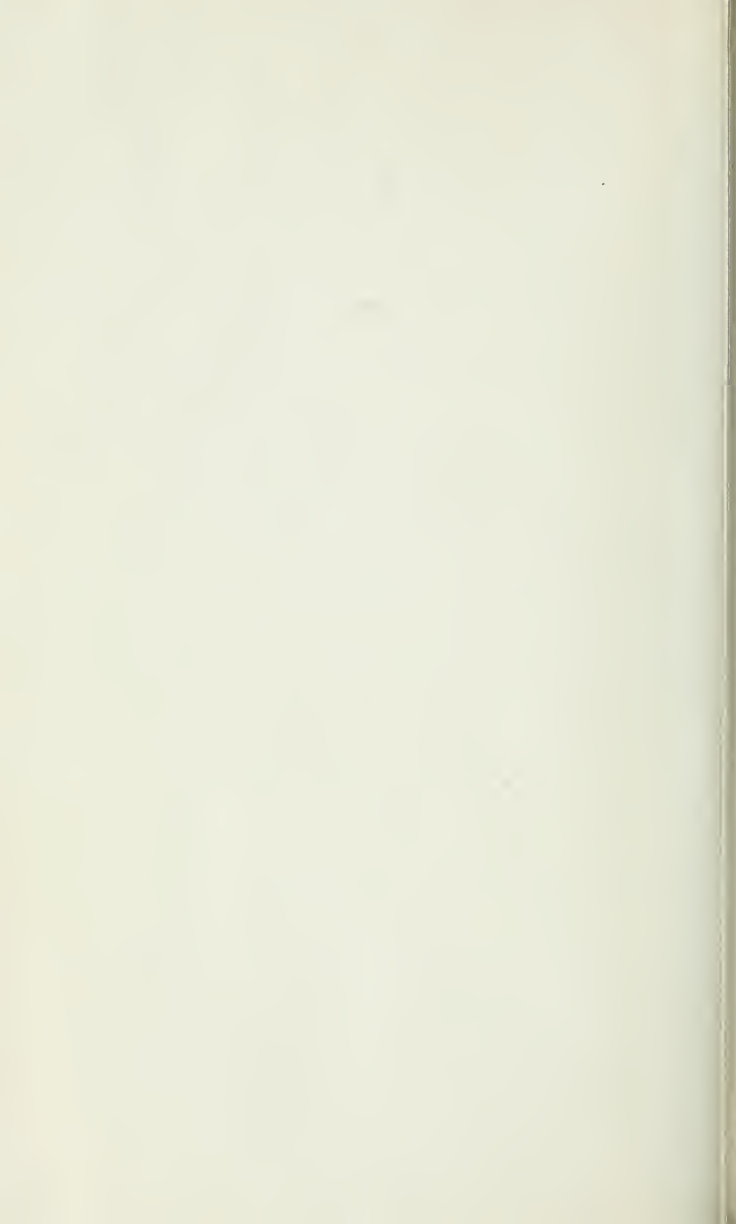
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